THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

MARCH, 1800.

Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt: undertaken by Order of the old Government of France; by C. S. Sonnini, Illustrated with Forty Engravings, &c. Translated from the French by Henry Hunter, D. D. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 7s. Boards. Stockdale. 1799.

Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt, undertaken by Order of the old Government of France. By C. S. Sonnini, Member of several Scientific and Literary Societies; and formerly an Officer and Engineer in the French Navy. Illustrated by Engravings, consisting of Portraits, Views, Plans, Antiquities, Plants, Animals, &c. drawn on the Spot, under the Author's Inspection. To which is subjoined a Map of the Country. Translated from the French. 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Debrett. 1800.

THE travels of Sonnini have attracted greater notice than they otherwise would have excited, because his observations are supposed to have suggested to the rulers of France the first idea of the expedition to Egypt. It is probable, from internal evidence, that their publication at this time is intended to exaggerate the beauties of that famous country, to magnify its advantages, and diminish the dread of the dangers and inconveniences of the climate. To enhance the merit of Buonaparte and his army, may not have been a part of a premeditated plan; for every exaggeration of this kind is so natural to a Frenchman, that he can speak gravely of 'the disastrous issue' of the naval action of Aboukir, as adding 'new glory and lustre to the French name.' It is sufficient to have given this clue to some of our traveller's descriptions, to prevent the reader from being deceived by various parts of the narrative, and to explain his representations in others. We now proceed to the work itself, and shall afterwards examine the different merits of the rival translations.

It is M. Sonnini's professed object to describe Egypt as it was when the French took possession of it; to compare its

degraded state at that period with the splendor which it was to re-assume, when it should again attain its ancient prosperity. Our author had travelled before through various countries, and had learned to bear the unavoidable fatigues and inconveniences inseparable from such expeditions in inhospitable climates, to examine with due attention the different objects, and, when national vanity did not interfere, to appreciate them with judgement. Lower Egypt was not a new object; but of Upper Egypt, at the time of his travels, little was known. We have since acquired more satisfactory information, particularly from the late travels of Mr. Browne, and, with the additions which our author's curious and attentive survey supplies, can more justly estimate many ancient as well as more modern accounts. We may add, that M. Sonnini is a naturalist of no mean rank. His eyes are constantly directed to the different objects which Nature presents in her three kingdoms; and a part of his work is a valuable supplement to Prosper Alpinus, to Hasselquist, and Forskal. Should Abdollatiph's description of this country ever escape from the cabinet of Dr. White, our author would be a proper editor of what relates to natural history.

As our principal object is Egypt, we shall pass cursorily over the incidents previous to the author's arrival. The narrative, however, is pleasing and interesting; and the various objects of natural history, which he has noticed, agreeably diversify it. It was the opinion of Buffon, that the Mediterranean was once a small inland lake, and that it was enlarged to its present extent by the bursting of the Euxine through the Bosporus, and of the Atlantic through the Strait of Gibraltar. M. Sonnini thinks that he has found a confirmation of this opinion, in the soundings between Sicily and Malta, and again between Malta and Cape Bon in Africa, which seldom exceed thirty, and never one hundred fathoms. The alleged circumstances seem to show that the eastern side of the Mediterranean has been gained from the continent.

The account of Malta and its productions is interesting; the political observations, the author says, are of weight only 'in the old order of things;' but what may result from the confusion we know not. The knights of Malta may be preserved in their name; but their order is no more.

Having described the approach to the coast of Egypt, our author points out the advantages of the situation discovered by the penetrating genius of Alexander, when he fixed on the spot which still bears his name, though the modern Alexandria is only the shadow of the ancient.

'The new city, or rather the town of Alexandria, is principally built upon the sea-shore. The houses, like all those of the Levant,

have terraced roofs: the holes that ferve as windows, are almoft entirely blocked up by a wooden lattice, projecting in different forms, and fo clofe, that it is hardly poffible for the light to enter. In this country, above all others, fuch inventions, which transform habitations into prifons, are real *jaloufies* *. It is through this fymmetrical, and fometimes not inelegant, arrangement of bars, that the fair fex can fee what is paffing out of doors, without being feen. It is in this kind of everlafting cloifter, that beauty, far from being paid that homage which nature intended it fhould receive from every heart of fenfibility, experiences nothing but contempt and outrage; it is there, in fhort, that one portion of mankind, taking advantage of the odious right of the ftrongeft, keeps in a humiliating ftate of flavery the other portion, whofe charms would alone be capable of foftening both the rugged nature of the foil, and the ferocity of its poffeffors.

'The narrow and irregular ftreets of Alexandria are equally deftitute of pavement and police: no public edifice, no private building, arrefts the eye of the paffenger; and were not the ruins of the ancient city in exiftence, he would meet with nothing to attract his attention. Turks, Arabs, Moors, Copts, Chriftians of Syria, and Jews, compofe a population, which may amount to five thoufand fouls, as far at leaft as it was poffible to judge, in a country where no regifter of any kind is kept. Befides, commerce brings thither, from all the countries of the Eaft, foreigners, who make only a momentary ftay. This confufed affemblage of men of different nations, jealous, and almoft always enemies of one another, would afford to an obferver a fingular mixture of dreffes and manners, provided a den of thieves could be worthy of his obfervation.

'They are feen crowding in the ftreets, and running rather than walking; they bawl alfo rather than fpeak. I often ftopped near perfons who appeared to me incenfed with rage: they gave their voice all the force it could derive from a ftrong and ample cheft; their countenance bore all the marks of paffion; their eyes fparkled; and violent geftures accompanied words which feemed ftill more violent. I approached, expecting to fee them cut one another's throats in a moment; and was perfectly aftonifhed to find, that nothing was in queftion but a bargain of fmall importance; that not one of their expreffions was of a threatening tenour; and that all this uproar was nothing more than their ufual manner of cheapening any thing they meant to buy.

'This cuftom of giving the voice the greateft poffible force in fpeaking, is common to almoft all the oriental nations, excepting the Turks, whofe demeanour is more grave and fedate. There are few people, perhaps, who have not remarked, that the Jews, a nation which has contrived to preferve its character and cuftoms in all the

* '*Jaloufie*, i. e. jealoufy, is the French word for a lattice-window, or Venetian blind.' T.

countries through which it is dispersed; there are few who have not remarked, that they also speak very loud, particularly to one another. Excepting a few individuals, whose constraint in the imitation of our manners plainly shews that they are assumed, we also see them, when they walk our streets, going with their bodies leaning forward, and their knees straight, taking quick and short steps, which rather resemble a run than a walk. In Egypt, where they live in greater subjection than elsewhere, they are exactly the same as we are accustomed to see them, avaricious, artful, and paltry knaves. Their schemes of plunder are not, like those of the Bedouins, and other robbers of Egypt, put in practice openly and by main force. It is, as with us, by cheating with address, and by thieving in the way of business, that they fill their own purse, and quietly empty that of their neighbour. It is thus that the Jews have appeared to me, wherever I have met with them. In every part of the world they are distinguished by their peculiar vices, which will be indelible as long as they shall obstinately persist in not passing the line which they have drawn between themselves and other nations. In every part of the world they are also seen to employ the same low means, the same deceit, and the same knavery, which makes them real pests in society; in short, they every where display the same insensibility and the same ingratitude with which they have, in these latter times, repaid the generosity and magnanimous conduct of France.' P. 68.

The ancient monuments of Grecian artists, in the best ages of Grecian taste, lie now dispersed, covered with sand, or forming a part of the walls, the rude huts, or other buildings, of the modern Arabs and Egyptians. The present fortifications are Arabian; and their strength is magnified, to add to the laurels of the consul Buonaparte. Pompey's Pillar and Cleopatra's Needle share the author's attention; and he adds some minute circumstances to the descriptions of former travellers.

The situation of Alexandria was once delightful. Canals from different parts of the Nile, and the neighbouring Lake Mareotis, formerly watered numerous gardens, kept with the most anxious care. Indeed, the former state of Egypt must have been very different from the present, since ancient travellers speak of its cultivated fields and gardens with enthusiasm. Such it may be again; for, whatever may be the event of the French expedition, the importance of Egypt to our Asiatic colonies is now generally acknowledged. This ancient medium of connection between Europe and India will probably be renewed; and the scene of desolation mentioned in the following quotation may yield to more pleasing prospects.

'Nothing remains but the canal of Lower Egypt, and even that is in a ruinous state. During the inundation it receives the water

of the Nile at Latf, oppofite Fouah, and has three bridges over it of modern conftruction. Near the former, by the fea-fide, is the entrance of the fubterraneous aqueduct that carries the provifion of water of the Alexandrians into the cifterns, the arches of which fupported the whole extent of the ancient city, and which every one concurred in confidering as one of the moft beautiful monuments in the world. The mouth of this aqueduct is blocked up; but when the water of the canal had attained a certain height, in confequence of the rife of the river, the principal magiftrates of the town went in great ceremony to break down the dam. When the cifterns were full, it was again built up, and the water of the canal continued to fall into the fea at the old port. It was by means of fo eafy a communication that the conveyance of merchandife was formerly effected throughout Egypt. The dangerous paffage of the mouth of the Nile was thus avoided, as well as the perils of the fea. When I was at Alexandria in 1778, not more than a century had elapfed fince it had been navigable for boats; but this canal, the advantages of which are ineftimable, was neglected by barbarians who were blind to their true interefts. The walls which fupported the banks were falling every day into ruins; the pavement at the bottom was covered with fucceffive coats of mud, and no boat could any longer fwim in it. A yellow and difgufting ftream would foon have ceafed to reach the cifterns, which were themfelves half deftroyed; the inhabitants would have foon experienced a total want of water; and modern Alexandria would have funk into the fand, and have become the haunt of favage animals, which feemed already to threaten it, while prowling round its walls.

'The banks of the canal are animated by fome of the richeft productions of living nature; farther on fhe appears dead. On every fide there is nothing but fands, rocks, and fterility. Trees and fhrubs grow by the water-fide, and fome patches of verdure are fcattered about the environs. A few wandering ftreams carry fertility to fields where barley is fown, and where different kinds of vegetables are cultivated, particularly a great number of artichokes. The cultivation of this diftrict formerly extended much farther; and it would have been eafy for the modern Alexandrians to have enlarged its limits; but they difcovered no activity, unlefs in pillage; nor is it furprifing that people who made no effort to preferve the only water that was drinkable, fhould have neglected the means of procuring themfelves comfort and abundance.

'Thefe are veftiges of the culture which furrounded ancient Alexandria; thefe are the remains of thofe delightful gardens which added to its magnificence, and the beauty of which Abulfeda ftill extolled in the time of the Arabs. A few trees fcattered here and there, and fcarcely vegetating upon this fandy fhore, are far from fufficient to conceal its aridity and nakednefs: feveral fpecies of foda, falt and acrid plants, of which the Arabian name, *kali*, has

been given to alkaline fubftances, are almoft the only ones that thrive upon this coaft, and there they may rather be faid to creep than grow. The Alexandrians burn them, and extract from their afhes a fixed falt, which is an article of commerce.' p. 87.

The catacombs, M. Sonnini thinks, were the original quarries. The foft ftone of Egypt is now covered with fand; but, in thefe fubterraneous receffes, its nature is difcovered. They are fuppofed, without fufficient reafon, to communicate with the pyramids: it is more certain, in our author's opinion, that they terminate in the caverns on the coaft.

The animals and birds, obferved in this part of Egypt, are particularly mentioned; and M. Sonnini has inferted his account of the jerboa, publifhed in the Journal de Phyfique for 1789. This animal is now better known from the defcriptions of the Ruffian travellers: the kangaroo of New South Wales is of the fame kind.

At Alexandria the French have been the chief objects of infult and injury, which, indeed, no European wholly efcapes. The injudicious regulations of the baron de Tott, whofe trifling inconfiftencies, and vain pretenfions to fcience, are often the objects of our author's fneers, have at different times augmented the danger. M. Sonnini, however, by a little addrefs, had an opportunity of examining an ancient temple and tomb, which have been acceffible to few Europeans.

'This temple is ancient; it was conftructed by a caliph; the walls are incrufted with marble of different colours, and fome beautiful remains of mofaic were ftill to be feen.

'The tomb which was the object of our refearches, and which may be confidered as one of the fineft pieces of antiquity preferved in Egypt, had been converted by the Mahometans into a fort of pool, or refervoir, confecrated to contain water for their pious ablutions. It is very large, and would be an oblong fquare, were not one of its fhorter fides rounded off in the fhape of a bathing-tub. In all probability it was formerly covered by a capital, but no traces of it are at prefent to be feen, and it is entirely open. It is all of one piece, and of a beautiful marble, fpotted with green, yellow, red, &c. upon a fine black ground; but what renders it particularly interefting, is the prodigious quantity of fmall hieroglyphics with which it is covered, both within and without. A month would fcarcely be fufficient to copy them faithfully; and no correct drawings have been taken of them to this day. That which I faw, at Paris, on my return from Egypt, at the houfe of Bertin, the minifter, could only ferve to give an idea of the fhape of the monument, the hieroglyphics having been traced by fancy and at random. It would be much the fame as if, in endeavouring to copy an infcription, we were to be fatisfied with writing the letters without any order or connexion. It is, however, only by exactly

copying the figures of this symbolical writing, that we can attain the knowledge of a mysterious language, on which depends that of the history of a country formerly so celebrated. When this language shall be known, we shall learn the origin of the sarcophagus, and the history of the great man whose ashes it contains. Till then all conjecture must be vague and uncertain.

'At the side of the tomb, upon a piece of gray marble, serving as pavement to the mosque, I perceived a Greek inscription, but in Roman letters; as it was half effaced, more time would have been required to decipher it than we could spare. I was able to distinguish, at first sight, only the word CONSTANTINON.' P. 122.

In the account of the route of the merchants, and the dangers of passing from Alexandria to Rosetta, or Rashid, there is some novelty. Our author performed this journey through a comparative desert, by land; and Savary, who never travelled through any other desert, applies all the horrors of the Nubian deserts to this between Alexandria and Rosetta, in which no such dangers occur.

Rosetta is situated in a plain of astonishing fertility. Every vegetable grows in spontaneous luxuriance; every bird, which by its plumage can charm the eye, or by its notes please the ear, adds to the enjoyment. Sedition and insurrection dare not invade this paradise: all is peace and calmness. The picture is too highly embellished to be a faithful copy. Nature mixes thorns with her roses; and the luxuriant soil, which gives verdure to the trees, nourishes the serpent beneath. Rosetta is undoubtedly the most fertile spot of Lower Egypt; yet we know that it has its inconveniences; and our author has not always been able to conceal them. He hastened from that town to Cairo; but the insurrections and other disorders of this city, the numerous parties, which in this intestine warfare infested the Said, prevented him from accomplishing his design of reaching Upper Egypt. He returned, therefore, for a time to Rosetta, infested with the gnats during his two-days' voyage on the Nile, and chilled by the early fogs of a winter, which, however, he contends, has little terrible, but its name. He describes minutely the culture of rice in Egypt, which he thinks would not succeed in France, and engages in the controversy, whether rice was known to the ancient Egyptians; treating M. Pauw's wild and inconsiderate assertions with proper contempt. The oxen of Egypt, he says, are not so remarkable for their beauty as travellers have represented.

The inhabitants of Rosetta are described with some minuteness; and the women, secluded as they are in all eastern coun-

tries, seem on this account to have proved more fascinating in our author's eyes. Even the embonpoint, so pleasing in Asia, is accompanied, in his opinion, by a firmness and elasticity, which give it charms unknown to Europeans. The Turks, in Egypt, do not differ from those in other countries. They are the same sedate, indolent, jealous race; but their detestable propensities seem, in this genial climate, to be more general, and less governable.

The henné, the Egyptian privet, is used as a dye for the hands; it is the Lawsonia inermis of Forskal. The perfume of the henné is delightful, if it be not in too large quantity, or brought too near. It gives the orange colour to the hands; and, among artists, it is valued as a very useful dye.

'But the useful and admitted properties of the henné are not confined to objects of mere pleasure or fashion: the arts also derive great advantage from the powder of its leaves. It may easily be conceived that a substance which furnishes, with so much facility, an adherent and durable colour, and which, according to the mixture, may be varied from yellow to the brightest red, cannot fail to be extremely useful in dying. It will probably soon be added to the dyes of France, where its use is not known, and where the skill of our artists will extract from it all its beneficial qualities. In Egypt it made a pretty considerable branch of trade. Fourteen or fifteen ships were annually loaded, at Alexandria, with these leaves reduced to powder, and dispatched to Smyrna, to Constantinople, and to Salonica, from whence their cargoes passed into several countries of the North, and, as I have been informed, even into Germany: they are there used in dying furs, and in the preparation of leather.

'The henné grows in abundance in the environs of Rossetta, and constitutes one of the principal ornaments of the gardens adjoining that town. Its roots, which strike very deep, find no difficulty in penetrating and growing in a soft, loamy soil, mixed with sand, and of such a nature as every cultivator would wish to possess: indeed, the shrub attains a greater growth, and is also more propagated there than elsewhere, though it is to be met with in all the cultivated places, and principally in the upper part, of Egypt.

'There is every reason to presume that the henné of Egypt is the *kupros* of the ancient Greeks. The descriptions, certainly incomplete, given of it by authors, and particularly the shape and sweet smell of its flowers, which they have extolled, scarcely leave a doubt as to the identity of these two shrubs. Hence the bunches of cyprus, *botrus cypri*, of Solomon's Song, can be no other than the bunches of the flowers of the henné; at least such is the opinion of the best commentators. See Scheuchzer, Physique Sacrée, tome i. p. 189; Junius, and a long list of interpreters.

'It is by no means astonishing that so charming a flower should have furnished oriental poetry with agreeable traits and amorous

comparison. This answers part of the forty-fifth question of Michaëlis; for the flower of the henné is disposed in bunches, and the Egyptian women, who are very fond of its smell, delight in wearing it, as I have already said, at the place indicated by the text of the Canticle, that is, at their bosom. But it is not so easy to account for the difficulty that occurred to Michaëlis, when he asks afterwards what is the meaning of the following words: *In the vineyards of Enge-di*; and what affinity is there between bunches of cypress and vines? For my own part, I know of none, except that the flowers of the cypress have, in their characters, a resemblance to those of the vine.' P. 175.

The Egyptian depilatory, which is completely successful, consists of an ore of arsenic (perhaps orpiment) and lime; but, to preserve the softness of the skin, the women submit to the pain of eradication, which is effected by an adhesive plaster.

Cats and dogs are numerous in Egypt; the former are as much caressed as the latter are detested; for a cat was the favourite animal of Mohammed. The animals of that country, in general, though spirited, are docile and familiar: bred up in the tents of the Bedouins, they are the early companions and friends of mankind. The ichneumon is not domesticated in Egypt, as has been asserted; for, if it destroys rats, it also devours poultry. It is not particularly inimical to the crocodile; for it feeds on all sorts of reptiles. It is not an argument to say that the ichneumon abounds in Lower Egypt, where there are few crocodiles, and is rare in the higher parts, where crocodiles abound; for this reptile was once more common near the sea, as we learn from the more ancient travellers. It is now often found below the cataracts, in Upper Egypt, contrary to the observation of Dr. Shaw, as our author properly remarks. The thirsè, a species of tortoise, is the greatest real enemy of the crocodile, devouring the young of this race with great greediness, and in great numbers.

M. Sonnini's account of the birds of Egypt is peculiarly interesting, as collected from his own observation, and accurate, as this part of natural history has claimed his particular attention. The collared turtle-doves are the harmless visitants of a season, and are respected as strangers, even by the inhabitants of this country.

The lotus of Egypt, the noufar of the Arabians, is a water lily; and the roots still form an article of food. Authors have, in general, overlooked this very common plant, as they looked for a very different one, the lotus of Barbary. Other useful plants of Lower Egypt are described by M. Sonnini, particularly the ficus sycomorus, the mulberry-leaved Egyptian fig tree, whose fruit is cooling and salubrious; the schismè, the

feeds of which are a fpecific againft the ophthalmia; the Egyptian millet (dourra), &c. He defcribes the natron of Egypt, fome of which, in time of peace, was imported for the ufe of our foap-boilers. We examined it at that time, and found it moderately rich in foffil alkali, with a large proportion of fea-falt. We then thought that it was a mafs of fea-falt in its progrefs towards decompofition, and that the muriatic acid, efcaping in a gafeous form, was the occafion of the violent and diftreffing ophthalmias, fo common in Egypt, which have been highly injurious to the active energy of the French army. We find our author, when fpeaking of the frequency and violence of the ophthalmias, which he fuppofes, in general, to be occafioned by the fine fand, adding the effects of acrid vapours, and particularly of the vapours arifing from the ground after having been wetted. The natron is ufed in Egypt for bleaching thread, as well as in the other manufactures for which foffil alkali is commonly employed. We need not mention all the objects of natural hiftory noticed by our author; but we will tranfcribe what he fays of the fenugrec, apparently a valuable plant, of which Profper Alpinus fpeaks with fuch exaggerated commendations.

'In the ftreets of Roffetta were fold the ftems of fenu-greek. This plant is cultivated for fodder; and it would be fuperior to every fort of food that Lower Egypt affords to animals, if the barfim, a fpecies of trefoil peculiar to that country, and of which I have already fpoken, were not there produced. Its Arabic name is helbè.

'Although the helbè of the Egyptians is a fucculent fodder for the numerous cattle that cover the plains of the Delta, although the horfes, oxen, and buffaloes, eat it with equal pleafure, it does not appear to be particularly intended for the nourifhment of animals, becaufe the barfim furnifhes them a ftill better and more abundant food. But what will appear very extraordinary is, that in this country, fo fertile in fingularities, the Egyptians themfelves eat the fenu-greek, fo that it may there properly be called the fodder of men.

'November is the month in which the green helbè is cried about for fale, in the ftreets of the towns. It is tied up in large bundles, which the inhabitants are eager to purchafe at a low price, and which they eat with incredible avidity, without any kind of feafoning whatever. They pretend that this fingular difh is an excellent ftomachic, a fpecific againft worms and the dyfentery, a prefervative, in fhort, againft a great number of diforders. I have myfelf eaten fome bundles of this plant. I did not diflike it; but I was very far from experiencing, in this repaft, the fame pleafure as the people of the country. As for its effects, I did not feel that it did me either good or harm.

'The Egyptians do not content themſelves with devouring the ſtalks and the leaves of the fenu-greek; they alſo make the ſeeds ſprout, and eat their long ſhoots. They conſider it as an excellent preparation, and poſſeſſing in an eminent degree the good qualities they aſcribe to the plant. In order to obtain a quick germination of the ſeeds, they fill a baſket with them, which they let ſoak in running water for two or three days; they then heap them up upon a bed of ſtraw or graſs, in order that they may grow warm; they cover a portion of theſe ſeeds, thus ſteeped, with ſmall earthen veſſels, in the ſhape of mutilated cones, open at the top. Through this opening the ſprouts, which are ſoon large, ſhoot out and intertwine; and they then are confined in that ſituation by being bent. Laſtly, the vaſe filled with young ſprouts is taken up, and they are eaten with the ſeeds from which they were produced. Twelve little pots thus provided are ſold for a medine, about a ſous of our money. It is neceſſary to have great confidence in the virtue of theſe ſprouts, to eat as great a quantity of them as the Egyptians, for they are exceedingly bitter. The ſeeds are alſo roaſted, and prepared like coffee, with the addition of lime-juice. This beverage is not unpleaſant. I cannot ſay as much of a ragout greatly in faſhion in this country, and which is made with the ſprouts of the helbè, dreſſed with honey.' P. 220.

M. Sonnini proceeded to Aboukir, on the ſite of the ancient Canopus; a city once ſo magnificent and delightful, that the inhabitants were ſtyled by Virgil, 'Gens fortunata Canopi.' At preſent it offers only maſſes of ruins, and one little pyramid, covered with hieroglyphics, which our traveller purchaſed. In the return to Roſetta, he examined the boghaſs, the bar of the Nile, ſo fatal to the ſlight boats of that country. He deſcribes ſeveral of the reptiles, whoſe tracks he noticed on the ſand. The waters of the Nile, ſo much celebrated for their excellence and ſalubrity by ſome, and condemned by others, owe perhaps their pleaſing and their ſalutary qualities, like Egypt itſelf, to the contraſt. To thoſe who approached from Upper Egypt and from the deſert, the land of the Delta, muſt have appeared ſingularly fertile, and water, of any kind, a delicious nectar. The water is certainly at times excellent, though, when thickened with ſlime and mud, at its loweſt ebbs, it can neither be pleaſing nor wholeſome. Our author, however, who is a general panegyriſt of Egypt, ſpeaks highly in its praiſe. There are no epidemical diſeaſes, he obſerves, in this happy climate; even the plague is imported, and is neither violent nor conſtant. Even the ophthalmia, which is not only epidemic but endemic, is paſſed over as a trifling complaint. Putrid and inflammatory fevers muſt, of courſe, ſometimes occur; but theſe are ſaid to be neither frequent nor epidemical. Hernia and leproſy are common. With reſpect to the cir-

cumcision of females, we strongly suspect that our author has been imposed on; but the subject is not proper to be discussed in this place.

The eel of the Nile has not the pernicious qualities attributed to it by Pauw, but, though avoided by the inhabitants, in consequence of some superstitious notions, is a delicate and wholesome food. It differs, in several respects, from the eel of European rivers. Our traveller also met with the three-clawed turtle, described by Forskal, who seems to consider it as a fresh-water animal; but M. Sonnini, though he does not decide, apparently admits it to be a maritime one. Nightingales pass the dreary months of the European winter in this part of the continent, as well as in Asia. The rats continue to abound, and the inhabitants still believe that they are formed from the mud of the retreating river.

Of an animal resembling the European fox, M. Sonnini thus speaks:

'There is every reason to presume, that all that has been asserted, both by the ancients and moderns, respecting the fox of Egypt, must be understood to apply to the thaleb, who has, in fact, several features similar to those of the fox. His hair is of a bright fawn colour, deeper on the upper than the under part of the body. He is particularly remarkable for his large tail, striped transversely with black and gray. His eyes are as lively as his motions: his countenance is that of cunning and craft; and while the jackals, merely ferocious, frighten away their prey by their howlings and numbers, while their nocturnal excursions are often unsuccessful, and they are sometimes compelled to appease their hunger with food the most disgusting and repugnant to their appetite, the more fortunate thaleb, surpassing them in address, does not associate with others, but goes alone; in the height of day approaches the habitations of men, establishing near them his subterraneous abode, which he carefully conceals under thick bushes, thence creeps out without noise, surprises the poultry, carries off the eggs, and leaves no other traces of the havock he has made than the havock itself. In hunting birds, he displays all possible agility and artifice; and scarcely any of them can escape him. One of the handsomest of quadrupeds, he would be, perhaps, one of the most amiable, if his tricks and his talents for depredation did not bear too strong an impression of knavery and falsehood. Taking one day a contemplative walk in a garden, I stopped near a hedge: a thaleb, who heard no noise, was coming towards me through the hedge, and, on his getting out, he found himself close at my feet. On seeing me, he was so struck with astonishment, that he did not even attempt to escape, but, fixing his eyes upon me, remained motionless for some seconds. His embarrassment was painted in his countenance, in a manner of which I could not have conceived him susceptible, and which indicated a very delicate instinct. For my part, I was afraid to make

any motion that might disturb this situation, which afforded me considerable pleasure. At length, after taking a few steps from one side to the other, as if not knowing which way to fly, still keeping his eyes turned towards me, he made off, not running, but stretching himself out, or rather creeping away, placing his feet alternately with singular precaution. He was so much afraid of letting himself be heard in his flight, that he held his large tail almost in a horizontal position, that it might neither drag on the ground, nor brush against the plants. On the other side of the hedge I found the remains of his meal; it was a bird of prey, which he had nearly devoured.

'To conclude this subject, I believe that the thalebs and the jackals take care to cover their excrements with earth or sand, like the cats, having found several of these concealments both in the sands and the cultivated ground, which could be only the work of those animals. This cleanliness would render the thaleb still more interesting, were he not so knavish.' P. 285.

The onions of Egypt still retain their former excellence; but the garlick, of which the Israelites so much regretted the loss, is no longer found, and perhaps some other substance might have been intended. The kinds of sheep and goats propagated in Lower Egypt are the broad-tailed Barbary, and the mambrina.

M. Sonnini concludes his account of Lower Egypt with the meteorological journal of November, December, and February. In the first of these months Reaumur's thermometer was from 10° to 15°, between 52° and 64° of Fahrenheit. When at the lowest point, the wind was high, and there was some rain; at other times the storm brought clouds of sand, and the wind was from the south; so that M. Savary, who mentions these whirlwinds, was not wholly in the wrong, though reprehended by our author. In December the thermometer was from 9° to 17°; the mean term was $13\frac{1}{4}$°, equal to $58\frac{1}{4}$° of Fahrenheit. In February it was from $10\frac{1}{2}$° to $17\frac{1}{2}$°; the mean was nearly the same. The storms were from the south; and the north wind brought fair weather and a serene atmosphere.

(To be continued.)

The First Book of Titus Lucretius Carus, on the Nature of Things, in English Verse, with the Latin Text. 8vo. 4s. *Boards.* Faulder. 1799.

LUCRETIUS, the father of Latin poetry, and the first didactic poet that ever existed, has by no means possessed the full extent of celebrity to which he is entitled. Descended

from one of the moſt illuſtrious families of Rome, and connected, in the period of his academical ſtudies at Athens, with the moſt diſtinguiſhed members of that poliſhed republic, many of whom appear to have been fellow-pupils with him in the college originally inſtituted by Epicurus, and at this time ſuperintended by Phædrus and Zeno;—he might, equally with them, have aſpired to the firſt dignities of the ſtate. But, leaving Memmius, and the three Ciceros, Caſſius, Velleius, and Atticus, to climb by themſelves the giddy cliff of opulence and ambition, he retired from the buſy world, and experienced, in the ſhades of privacy and in the cultivation of letters, a delight which his more active companions perhaps never enjoyed. Indeed, there is ſcarcely a book in his unrivaled poem on the *Nature of Things*, in which he does not take a retroſpect of the choice he had made, and congratulate himſelf upon the ſuperior felicity reſulting from it. The ſubject which he ſelected for the occupation of his leiſure hours is the moſt comprehenſive that can enter the mind of man: it may be regarded as an eſſay on univerſal nature; and it required for its accompliſhment an almoſt univerſal knowledge. It was to develope upon the principles of Epicurus, the moſt luminous and conſiſtent philoſopher among the Greeks, the origin of the world, and the laws by which it is regulated. It was to trace the firſt motions of matter from its ſtate of chaos to the phænomena exhibited at preſent, to advance from natural to metaphyſical and moral philoſophy, to anatomiſe the human mind, to develope the origin of ſenſation and thought, and follow the race of men from ſolitude to ſocial life, from barbariſm to civiliſation, refinement, and political inſtitutions. The ſubject was almoſt new; it had ſeldom been treated, at leaſt through the medium of poetry, in any æra of the Grecian hiſtory, and never by any Roman bard. Lucretius, indeed, may almoſt be regarded as the founder of Latin verſe; for, although Ennius had preceded him about a century, yet the verſification of this poet, according to the conjunct teſtimony of Virgil and Ovid, was exceedingly rugged and mis-ſhapen: when Lucretius, therefore, panegyriſes his memory, it is rather a proof of his own ſuavity of diſpoſition, and of his ſuperiority to all envy, than of the real merit of Ennius himſelf. At this period, the Latin language, indeed, though it had been ſufficiently poliſhed for the purpoſes of hiſtory and oratory, was extremely rude with reſpect to verſification, and altogether barbarous and unformed upon the recondite ſubjects of philoſophy. Our poet complains of this difficulty to his friend Memmius, and aſſerts the ſevere neceſſity, to which he was ſubjected, of conſtructing new terms, and ſtriving to overcome the poverty of his native tongue by inceſſant labour and inveſtigation.

'Nec me animi fallit Graïorum obſcura reperta
Difficile inluſtare Latinis verſibus eſſe,
Multa nobis verbis præſertim quom ſit agendum,
Propter egeſtatem linguæ, et rerum novitatem;
Sed tua me Virtus tamen, et ſperata voluptas
Suavis amicitiæ, quemvis ecferre laborem
Suadet, et inducit nocteis vigilare ſerenas,
Quærentem dictis quibus et quo carmine demum
Clara tuæ poſſim præpandere lumina menti,
Res quibus *ob*cultas penitus conviſere poſſis.'

He fortunately perſevered; and his ſucceſs may be better eſtimated from the aſſiduity with which Virgil and the poets of ſucceeding ages copied him wherever they had a poſſibility, than from any individual eulogy that can be now paid to his memory. There is, indeed, in his ſtyle and manner, every requiſite that can combine to conſtitute a perfect poet. He poſſeſſes the correctneſs of Racine with the ſimplicity of Goldſmith; Virgil is not more pictureſque in his delineations, nor is Buffon more true to the genuine appearances of nature; while inſtances of ſublimity flaſh forth frequently, which involuntarily remind us of ſome of the happieſt paſſages of our own Shakſpeare, and which have ſeduced an elegant writer of the preſent day * into the fanciful conceit that Lucretius was intimately acquainted with the ſacred ſcriptures of the Jews, and had actually borrowed from them ſome of his beſt and boldeſt imagery.

What can be the reaſon, it may be inquired, that, with ſuch exalted merit, Lucretius ſhould never have become a popular poet? To this misfortune various cauſes have contributed. Metaphyſics and natural philoſophy have never, till of late, been ſtudied as neceſſary branches of general education; and we may add, that never perhaps has there been a poem ſo miſerably marred, and rendered unintelligible by the blunders of tranſcribers, or ſo infamouſly verſified into modern languages as his elegant and maſterly production. From this general charge, however, we except the admirable tranſlation of Marchetti into Italian. But a more operating cauſe, in all probability, than either of theſe, may be traced in the defamatory aſperſions thrown both upon the perſonal character of our poet, and the ſyſtem of philoſophy which it was his object to develope; and we are ſorry to find that little apology or vindication can be expected from the anonymous author of the verſion of the firſt book of *The Nature of Things* now immediately before us. Till this be done, which we think might with ſucceſs be attempted, ſo as to ſoften or repel the charge of groſs atheiſm and immorality, Lucretius, in deſpite of all

* St. Pierre. Etudes de la Nature, tome ii. étude 8.

his poetic merit, can never become a writer of much popular celebrity, nor will his poem be in general use with the multitude. It was with charges of this description that the character of Epicurus himself, the founder of the system, was originally blackened both by the malevolence of several rival philosophers who were contemporaries with him at Athens, and the avidity with which such calumnies were swallowed by their disciples. Though it is well known to every scholar who is acquainted with the subject, that a life of more simplicity, purity, and benevolence, was never led by any sage whatever, and passages of his own writing demonstrate his belief in the existence of a supreme being, the creator and sovereign disposer of all things; yet the labours of Diogenes Laërtius, Gassendi, and Du Rondelle, who devoted themselves to the proof and publication of these facts, have not hitherto eradicated the contrary impression from the public mind. Lucretius, who was a close adherent to the theory of Epicurus, appears also to have been a close copyist of the purity and simplicity of his manners; and, although there is little in The Nature of Things that can substantiate his belief in the existence of a supreme controlling power, yet both the second and fifth books are not without passages to this effect; nor is it to be supposed that, in this tenet alone, he should deviate from the magnificent theory which he was elucidating. The imaginary doctrine of chance, and the fortuitous concurrence of atoms, might be easily made to blend with such a creed, however contradictory to each other these ideas may seem to be at the first view; for we may conceive it to have been the opinion of this school, that the primary powers of motion and repulsion were originally bestowed upon matter, by the Creator himself, for the express purpose of creation; which, when thus endowed, was left, for ages after ages, to the operation of such communicated powers, acting apparently with fortuitous effect alone, till the agglomeration of chaos, and the gradual evolution of the world. But we are anticipating a subject upon which, we understand, another translator of the poem before us, Mr. Good, whose name and version we have already had occasion to notice *, has been long engaged. However, we cannot avoid observing, that, with respect to the morality of his character, Lucretius has sustained more injury from our English translators than from all his annotators and historians who preceded them, not excepting Eusebius himself. We now particularly allude to the fourth book of his poem, the close of which is devoted to a description of the progress of illicit love, and the dreadful evils attendant upon it, and to a developement of the doctrine of animal generation, and the laws to which it is subjected. In

* See our XXVIth Vol. New Arr. p. 11.

the Roman bard, notwithstanding the licence of poetry, there is scarcely an idea to which the most delicate student can object: in the former part he is a moralist, pointing out to the young and heedless adventurer, in the journey of life, the mischiefs of a course of voluptuousness: he unveils the temple of pleasure, he shows its enjoyments in their utmost latitude, and he shows at the same time that the whole is hollow, unsatisfactory, and productive of every evil. In the latter part he is a physician lecturing upon the origin of animal life, investigating the mysterious laws of its failure or success, tracing the human form from its earliest and most recondite embryo, and advancing a variety of precepts for the conduct of future generations. For his mode of treating these subjects, several of the Christian fathers have complimented him with an approbation to which he is justly entitled; and perhaps there is not a line in the original but might be perused, even in the present day, by any female to whom it might be prudent to communicate such subjects at all. But in the language of our English translators these important topics assume a very different appearance. The loose libidinous muse of Dryden was ill calculated to preserve their native chastity when he undertook their interpretation. In his hands, the moralist and physician exchange the purity of their characters for that of the gross and intemperate debauchee; and Lucretius is presented in all the disgusting ribaldry of his contemporary Catullus. Creech, who immediately succeeded Dryden, and versified the whole poem, instead of detached portions, trod too closely in the track which had thus been opened before him; and, towards the termination of the latter subject, adopted a whole page of Dryden's words. But Guernier, who has given us a prose version of Lucretius, is still more culpable. With an affectation of modesty, more characteristic of the prude than the man of letters, he abruptly breaks off in the middle of his subject, declaring that he can translate no farther; and yet this very modest man whose chastity prevented him from *translating* the philosophy of Lucretius, did not blush to *transcribe*, by way of continuation, the gross ribaldry of Dryden, which he imposes upon his reader for an accurate and genuine version of the Roman bard.

We have been led thus far into the character and merits of Lucretius from a prospect of his shortly becoming a more familiar acquaintance with our countrymen. Of the late splendid and elaborate edition of his poem, by Mr. Wakefield, we have already taken notice in different volumes of our Journal *, as we have also of the spirited specimens of a new translation in blank verse by Mr. Good, in our review of the very agree-

* See our XXIIId Vol. New Arr. p. 1, 283; XXIV. p. 255, 378.

able Literary Hours of his friend Dr. Drake, in which publication they are inſerted; and we now proceed to an inveſtigation of the preſent verſion, which is attempted in rhyme by a gentleman with whoſe name we are not acquainted, but whom we underſtand to be the author of a tranſlation of Catullus that appeared in the year 1797 *. The object of the author in preſenting the public with a verſion of this detached portion of Lucretius, which compriſes only the firſt book of his poem, is fully explained by himſelf in the commencement of his preface.

'The preſent publication' (he ſays) 'is offered as a ſpecimen of a new and entire tranſlation of the ſix books of Titus Lucretius Carus on the doctrines of the Epicurean philoſophy, or what he denominates the Nature of Things. Should it meet with that favourable reception the author wiſhes, ſo as to encourage him to produce, in ſeparate ſucceſſive publications, tranſlations of the remaining books, which are now in great forwardneſs, they will ſoon be committed to the preſs. An emblematical frontiſpiece, executed by the very firſt artiſt of the preſent day, together with the life of Lucretius, and a critical eſſay on his work, will be prefixed. The notes, which muſt of neceſſity be numerous, treating ſo abſtruſe a ſubject, will be ſelected from the beſt commentators, as D. Lambinus; O. Gifanius; T. Fabrus; J. B. Pius; A. Preigerus; J. Voſſius; M. Fayus, the Delphin editor; T. Creech, the firſt Engliſh annotator; and S. Havercamp, whoſe edition of Lucretius I conſider as ſuperior to any other extant, not even excepting the voluminous and ſplendid labour of *Doctor* Wakefield, and whoſe text I have principally adopted: they are meant to follow in a body at the end of the book, which would ſeem more pleaſant to the reader's eye, than perpetually interfering with the poetic text. A copious index will likewiſe be ſubjoined.' p. v.

A copious commentary, conſiſting of matter well ſelected, and illuſtrating the doctrines advanced in the comprehenſive ſyſtem of the poem itſelf, as well as thoſe which occur in the writings of other philoſophers, would doubtleſs form an accompaniment moſt devoutly to be wiſhed for; and whether the notes follow in a body at the end of the book, or attend the poem itſelf as it advances, is not, perhaps, a matter of great conſequence, though we are inclined to prefer the latter mode for the ſake of a more eaſy reference. But, as the preſent publication is intended as a ſpecimen of the ability of the author for the accompliſhment of his deſign, we are ſurpriſed to ſee it uſhered into the world without a ſingle annotation of any kind either accompanying the verſion or inſerted at the cloſe of the volume. We are equally aſtoniſhed at the preference given by him to the edition of Havercamp. It is ſtill doubted by many critics whether Havercamp be not inferior to both Lambinus and

* See our XXIId Vol. New Arr. p. 65.

Creech: but to prefer his publication of Lucretius to the edition of Wakefield, the best that has ever appeared at any time, or in any nation, as well with respect to the consummate labour, judgement, and erudition, of the editor himself, as the magnificence of its typography, and which is already regarded as a national honour on the continent, is to discover a vitiation of taste for which we cannot easily account. We doubt whether this translator has ever perused the edition of Mr. Wakefield; for he would occasionally have copied from him if he had, which we do not find that he has done in a single instance. Whence he has obtained the title of *doctor* for this celebrated scholar, we know not: we are persuaded that Mr. Wakefield was not in possession of it when he left London, and his present situation is not very well adapted to the promotion of collegiate rank.

In the enumeration of the various versions of Lucretius that have appeared in different languages, the translator has taken no notice of the only one in the French tongue that seems to possess any merit; nor has he mentioned the ludicrous accident by which the original manuscript was destroyed; we mean the version of the comic poet Moliere, who, though not an Epicurean himself, had occasionally attended the lectures of Gassendi, at Clermont, and was on terms of intimate friendship with his favourite disciple Chapelle. He is probably not acquainted with the German, or he would not have forborne to mention the translation of Mayr, which was published about fifteen years ago at Vienna. As to the Italian version, by Marchetti, although he mentions his name, and acknowledges that he has undoubted merit, we do not think that he can ever have read it, as he says that Creech's translation is the best with which he is acquainted *in any language*. And thus Creech, who, though a good classic, is less esteemed as a poet than as a mere versifier of classic authors, is by this writer exalted above one of the best poets, and certainly the best translator, that Italy ever exhibited; a bard who seems to have possessed the very spirit of Lucretius himself, and to have rendered his poem so popular in his own country that there is scarcely a housekeeper of the present day but is possessed of this celebrated version.

With respect to the edition of the original text, our author, we observe, has generally adhered, agreeably to his own declaration in the preface, to that of Havercamp: but we find one or two exceptions for which there appears to be no reason whatever; particularly in v. 722, where the vulgar lection of *Italiæ terraï* is adopted for *Æoliæ terrarum*, a reading which, if he had vouchsafed to consult the edition of Wakefield, he would have found confirmed by his authority, and sufficiently demonstrated to be the true one. In conformity

to Havercamp, the translator has, in many places, adopted what is now supposed to have been the genuine and original orthography of the Latin bard: we only lament that the rule is not universally adhered to. If it be proper to write *divôm* for *divûm*, as in v. 1, and 159, then should it also be *incolomis* for *incolumis*, p. 458, and *divorsa* for *diversa*, p. 422: and if *inlustrare* be accurate, v. 138, and *auctumno*, v. 176, we ought to read *inlicebris*, v. 16, *inrevocabilis*, v. 469, *ecferre*, v. 142, *conmunis*, v. 422, *obcultas*, 147, &c. In like manner, if it be *frugiferenteis*, v. 3, and *amneis*, 413, it should assuredly be *ventei*, v. 6, *solitei*, v. 459, and *utei*, 454. But our author is not always consistent with himself in his mode of spelling; for, in v. 159, he writes *divôm*, and in v. 1014 *divûm*; in v. 146 *occultas*, and in v. 425 *occultis*; inaccuracies which a perusal of Wakefield's edition would have taught him, in every respect, to avoid.

As to the version itself, dissatisfied as we are with that of Creech, and much as we wish for a better, we do not apprehend that the present has sufficient merit to supersede it. Sometimes, indeed, we meet with a brilliant and vigorous line; but such verses unfortunately lie at a great distance from each other; and in our opinion they occur almost as frequently in the old translation as in the new. Our author, perhaps, would have acted more wisely in employing blank verse than rhyme. It is more tractable in the discussion of philosophical subjects, and admits a greater variety and beauty of cadence. To the choice of this species of versification much of the success which Mr. Good seems to have attained may be attributed. It is a remarkable circumstance, that, after the long and unmerited silence in which Lucretius was suffered to sleep, two translators of his poem should start up at the same time, and appear before the public with specimens of their respective abilities. This being the case, however, we will now enable the public to form its own judgement, by selecting a few parallel passages from each version, and prefixing the original text, for the purpose of comparison. The following is a beautiful delineation of quiet and rural felicity: it possesses all the portraiture of Claude or Poussin.

Lucretius.

'——— pereunt imbres, ubi eos pater æther
In gremium matris terraï præcipitavit.
At nitidæ surgunt fruges, ramique virescunt
Arboribus; crescunt ipsæ, fœtuque gravantur.
Hinc alitur porro nostrum genus, atque ferarum:
Hinc lætas urbeis pueris florere videmus,
Frundiferasque novis avibus canere undique sylvas.
Hinc fessæ pecudes pingues per pabula læta

Corpora deponunt, et candens lacteus humor
Uberibus manat distentis; hinc nova proles
Artubus infirmis teneras lasciva per herbas
Ludit, lacte mero menteis perculsa novellas.'

Mr. Good.

'When on the bosom of maternal earth,
His showers redundant genial ether pours,
The dulcet drops seem lost: but harvests rise
Jocund and lovely; and with foliage fresh
Smiles every tree, and bends beneath its fruit.
Hence man and beast are nourish'd: hence o'erflow
Our joyous streets with crowds of frolic youth,
And with fresh songs th' umbrageous groves resound.
Hence the herds fatten, and repose at ease,
O'er the gay meadows, their unwieldy forms;
While from each full-distended udder drops
The frequent milk spontaneous: and hence, too,
Fed from the same pure fount, their own wild young,
With tottering footsteps print the tender grass,
Joyous at heart, unwearied in their sports.'

The present Translator.

'—— observe, when vanish'd are those show'rs,
Which o'er the earth's maternal bosom pours
Æther, kind father! then instead we see
Harvests of waving gold; and from each tree
Rich loaded boughs of fertile green depend,
Which still increase, and thick with fruitage bend;
These to our kind, and brutes like nurture yield;
By these with youth are our gay cities fill'd;
Hence leafy groves with new-born choirs resound;
Hence fatt'ning herds stretch o'er the gladsome ground
Their wearied sides, and ever-plenteous rills
White from the udder's milky store distils;
Hence, sporting wanton o'er the tender green
With little limbs, the rising breed are seen;
And, from their dams, as the rich draughts they drain,
Gladness and health flow fast thro' ev'ry vein.'

We have already mentioned the liberality of Lucretius in applauding the muse of Ennius, who might in some measure be considered as his rival. In the following passage he discovers the same manly and generous spirit in his account of Empedocles, whose philosophic system he nevertheless disapproved, and openly opposes.

Lucretius.

'Quorum Acragantinus cumprimis Empedocles est;
Insula quem triquetris terrarum gessit in oris:

Quam fluitans circum magnis amfractibus æquor
Ionium glaucis adspergit virus ab undis:
Angustoque fretu rapidum mare dividit undis
Italiæ terraï oras à finibus ejus:
Hîc est vasta Charybdis, et hîc Ætnæa minantur
Murmura flammarum rursum se conligere iras,
Faucibus eruptos iterum ut vis evomat igneis:
Ad cœlumque ferat flammaï fulgura rursum:
Quæ quom magna modis multis miranda videtur
Gentibus humanis regio, visendaque fertur,
Rebus opima bonis, multa munita virûm vi:
Nil tamen hoc habuisse viro præclarius in se,
Nec sanctum magis, et mirum, carumque videtur.
Carmina quin etiam divini pectoris ejus
Vociferantur, et exponunt præclara reperta;
Ut vix humanâ videatur stirpe creatus.'

Mr. Good.

' Thus sung Empedocles—in honest fame
First of his sect; whom Agrigentum bore
In cloud-capt Sicily. Its sinuous shores
Th' Ionian main, with hoarse, unwearied wave
Surrounds, and sprinkles with its briny dew:
And, from the fair Italian fields, divides
With narrow frith that spurns th' impetuous surge.
Here vast Charybdis raves: here Etna rears
His infant thunders, his dread jaws unlocks,
And heaven and earth, with fiery ruin threats.
Here many a wonder, many a scene sublime,
As on he journeys, checks the traveller's steps;
And shews, at once, a land in harvests rich,
And rich in sages of illustrious fame.
But nought so wondrous, so illustrious nought,
So fair, so pure, so lovely, can it boast,
Empedocles, as thou! whose song divine,
By all rehears'd, so clears each mystic lore,
That scarce mankind believ'd thee born of man.'

The present Translator.

' The first of such philosophers as these
Was Agrigentum's boast, Empedocles;
Born on that isle, where, tow'ring to the skies,
From its three shores three promontories rise;
Round which th' Ionian sea with azure waves
Winds tortuous, mighty, and each confine laves;
While one small strait, form'd of impetuous tides,
From its own coast the Latian realm divides:
See there Charybdis its vast whirlpool spread;
And Ætna there uplift its smoking head,

With murmurs deep it threatens to collect
Its brooding anger, and in flames eject;
From its black jaws to vomit forth the blaze,
And make heav'n's concave glitter with its rays.
Tho' much this land by strangers is esteem'd,
And worthy note from various causes deem'd;
Tho' various blessings to the clime belong,
And num'rous tribes its peopled surface throng;
Yet it held nought so sacred, dear, admir'd,
As this fam'd man by wisdom's song inspir'd,
Which, from his lips sweet pour'd, such secrets taught,
That scarce of mortal lineage he was thought.'

We shall close our account with another extract. The poet thus speaks of the difficulties which opposed him, and the sources of support derived from the laudable ambition of his own mind.

Lucretius.

' Nec me animi fallit quam sint obscura, sed acri
Percussit thyrso laudis spes magna meum cor,
Et simul incussit suavem mî in pectus amorem
Musarum: quo nunc instinctus, mente vigenti
Avia Pieridum peragro loca, nullius ante
Trita solo: juvat integros accedere fonteis,
Atque haurire: juvatque novos decerpere flores;
Insignemque meo capiti petere inde coronam,
Unde prius nulli velârint tempora Musæ:'

Mr. Good.

' Obscure the subject, but the thirst of fame
Burns all my bosom; and thro' every nerve
Darts the proud love of letters, and the muse.
I feel the inspiring power; and roam resolv'd
Thro' paths Pierian never trod before.
Sweet are the springing founts with nectar new;
Sweet the new flowers that bloom: but sweeter still
Those flowers to pluck, and weave a roseat wreath,
The Muses yet to mortals ne'er have deign'd.'

The present Translator.

' Full well I know the subject is not clear;
But hop'd-for praise goads on my eager soul,
And the sweet Muses my fond breast controul:
Thus urg'd, those rude paths boldly I explore
Of Helicon, which none e'er trod before:
To undiscover'd founts it joys to go,
And quaff; to cull flow'rs yet ne'er known to blow;
And plait a glorious garland for my head,
Such as the Nine o'er poet's brow ne'er spread.'

There is no difficulty, in our opinion, in determining to which of these versions the palm of superiority is to be awarded; and, in consequence, which is most likely to become a favourite with the public.

Mordaunt. Sketches of Life, Characters, and Manners, in various Countries; including the Memoirs of a French Lady of Quality. By the Author of Zeluco and Edward. 3 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 1*l.* 1*s. Boards.* Robinsons. 1800.

FROM the pen of the author of Zeluco, the public will naturally expect a production rich in the knowledge of life, and embellished with interesting traits of character. Mordaunt is a novel of this description; and, though not distinguished by an artful contexture of plot, or by a dramatic fullness of incident, will yet afford considerable gratification to the reader. Mr. Mordaunt, an accomplished young gentleman, gives an account of his travels on the continent in a series of letters, dated from *Vevay*, to his friend colonel Sommers, in England. These letters, which occupy a great part of the first volume, contain many lively and correct sketches of national manners. As a first specimen, we extract the account of a German review.

'The exhibition at a review is brilliant to the eye; but an investigation of the springs on which its movements depend is most afflicting to the heart. The number of blows to which a recruit in the German service is subjected is not to be counted; and the various severities he must endure, before he can be brought to hold himself as erect as a pike, to wheel to the right and left with the agility of a harlequin, to bear restraint with the patience of a bramin, and to toss his firelock with the dexterity of a juggler, are inconceivable.

"Poor fellows," said I one day to an officer with whom I conversed, "how unhappy is their condition!"

"No," said the officer, "you are mistaken; it is not unhappy."

"No!" exclaimed I.

"Not at all," answered he; "by no manner of means."

"Why, how many blows of a cane may an officer order the corporal to give a soldier for a fault in the exercise?"

"Six," said he; "he must not exceed six for one blunder."

"But a man may make several blunders in one field-day," said I.

"If he were to make twenty," replied the officer, "he would receive only six blows for each."

"How often are the soldiers upon duty?" said I,

"They are very ſeldom off duty," anſwered he; "but they mount guard only twice or thrice a week in the time of peace."

"How do they employ the reſt of their time?"

"O, they are never at a loſs for the employment of their time; they have their firelock to furbiſh, their accoutrements to clean, and they muſt appear at the roll-calling night and morning. Theſe different employments fill up moſt of their ſpare time, and prevent them from ſpending their pay in gluttony and debauchery."

"They muſt repine ſadly at ſo much conſtraint."

"Quite the contrary," replied he; "they muſt never repine: they would be puniſhed if they attempted to repine—beſides, they know that their condition is never to be altered, which ſaves them from repining."

"Why this is as great a ſlavery as that of the negroes in our colonies, in my opinion!" exclaimed I.

"So it is in mine," ſaid the officer.

"I thought you had denied that the ſoldiers were in ſlavery?" reſumed I.

"Never," anſwered he; "I never could deny what is manifeſt. I denied that they were unhappy, indeed, which is a very different thing."

'Notwithſtanding the diſtinction made by this officer between ſlavery and unhappineſs, I hope our countrymen, my dear Sommers, will always conſider them as ſynonymous.

'When we conſider the object obtained by all this caning and revolting ſeverity, it ſeems moſt ſurpriſing that it ſhould be continued: all that it produces is a greater degree of quickneſs in the manual exerciſe than would take place without it. Soldiers are puniſhed an hundred times on account of ſome involuntary ſlip of their fingers for once, on account of diſobedience to officers, or neglect of any eſſential article of duty. That ſoldiers ſhould be taught to handle their arms with dexterity, to wheel, to march, and preſerve order in their ranks; and, above all, that they ſhould be obedient and attentive, is abſolutely neceſſary; but that they ſhould perform certain motions half a ſecond ſooner or later is of no importance.' Vol. i. p. 24.

The abſurd ſeverities of the German military diſcipline fully deſerve theſe animadverſions. It is, perhaps, important for the advocates of the *marinet* ſyſtem to conſider whether *ſpirit* be not as deſirable in a ſoldier as mechanical obedience, and whether the ſevere and excluſive cultivation of the latter may not frequently have contributed to give, to the new *conſcripts* of an enthuſiaſtic enemy, an advantage over veteran troops of equal intrepidity, but of feelings ſubdued by the minute exactions and habitual rigours of a ſlaviſh diſcipline.

The revolutionary horrors of France are occaſionally the topics of theſe letters. The following anecdote of the late

duke of Orleans ſeems to juſtify the general repreſentations of his infamous conduct; but the ſketch of his character differs from the accounts given by various annaliſts of the revolution.

'I happened to be in the Rue St. Honoré when the head of the princeſs Lamballe was carried to the Palais Royal—I ſhall never forget the countenance of the wretch who carried the pike. Some of our countrymen dined with the duke of Orleans that very day: one of them told me the ſame evening that he ſtood with him at the window when it p[illegible]ed; the duke ſaid, "C'eſt la tête de madame de Lamballe—Je la reconnois par ſa chevelure."

'All preſent were ſhocked at this horrid proceſſion: madame Buffon turned quite pale, and ſeemed to be occupied with melancholy reflections as long as the company ſtaid. It has often been aſſerted that the duke contrived the murder of the princeſs from avaricious motives.

'From the idea I formed of his character during my ſhort acquaintance, and from the account I have received from ſome who were in the habit of intimacy with him, I believe this is without foundation. His mind was more frivolous than atrocious: though incapable of elevation or any great virtuous exertion, it ſeemed alſo incapable of plotting a deed of ſuch enormous wickedneſs. He gamed more from habit than avarice: and notwithſtanding that the alterations made in the Palais Royal were generally imputed to his inſatiable covetouſneſs, I have been aſſured, by thoſe who had opportunities of knowing the truth, that he was with difficulty led into that meaſure by the importunity of thoſe who had expectations of gain by it. The crimes, as well as the follies of his life, proceeded from the ſuggeſtion or impulſe of others, rather than his own natural diſpoſition.

'His education had been entirely neglected. What knowledge he poſſeſſed was caught in converſation; yet ſuch was his natural quickneſs, that he often diſplayed an acuteneſs of obſervation, and a pleaſantry in recounting, that approached to wit. On this account he was told by his flatterers, that he reſembled in character his anceſtor the regent, who, with all his profligacy, was indiſputably a man of wit.

'In like manner all the kings of France who have ſhown great fondneſs for women have been compared to Henry IV.; and all their miniſters, of whatever character, to the duke of Sully, and were never told that they had loſt the reſemblance until they loſt the royal favour.

'Though the duke of Orleans talked with plauſibility, he had no fixed opinions; ſo that, after ſupporting a particular argument one day, it was not unuſual to hear him ſpeak next day in the oppoſite ſenſe with equal plauſibility. He never had the leaſt taſte for reading of any kind; the moſt amuſing or intereſting narrative

could not allure him to take that trouble. Though he paſſed his life in debauchery, he had not patience to peruſe even thoſe licentious books where ſuch ſcenes are deſcribed. 'An intimate companion of his aſſured me, that happening to make mention of the *Liaiſons Dangereuſes*, it appeared that the duke had never read it, though written by his favourite La Clos, and deſcriptive of ſcenes highly to his fancy.

'He was as devoid of ambition as of a taſte for letters, but was ſeduced into political intrigue by the ambition of Mirabeau and La Clos; and falling afterwards into the government of men of more atrocious characters, he was driven to meaſures of cruelty by terror. The ſhocking vote he gave in the convention was not prompted by revenge, or a wiſh to take away the king's life, but merely to ſave his own; which, however, it did not ſave; for he was afterwards dragged to the guillotine by the very monſters who had forced him to vote for the death of the king.

'What may be thought the moſt ſingular part of his ſtory is, that he died with a degree of firmneſs far ſuperior to what he had ever diſplayed in the courſe of his life. Thoſe who conducted him to execution made the cart ſtop before the gate of his own palace, the ſcene of his former magnificence and pleaſure. This was done, no doubt, from a refinement in cruelty, that his anguiſh might be rendered more acute by the recollection of what he was going to be deprived of for ever. He did not affect to turn his eyes away, but looked up to it without any ſymptom of ſorrow or emotion; he ſeemed no way affected by the ſhouts and inſults of the moſt brutal of all mobs; he retained the ſame air of indifference the whole way to the place of execution, and ſubmitted to the executioner without a complaint or a ſigh.

'The duke of Orleans well deſerved his fate, on account of his crimes againſt his ſovereign and his country, but not from the men who had driven him to thoſe crimes, and whoſe power was in a great meaſure the purchaſe of his money. The juſtice which was that day executed on him was, in thoſe who brought him to the ſcaffold, the height of injuſtice and villany.' Vol. i. p. 31.

The following remarks on the atrabilarious temperament of our countrymen will, perhaps, make an uſeful impreſſion on the melancholic reader.

'Nothing contributes ſo much to give an Engliſhman a renewed reliſh for his native land as paſſing a few years in other countries. Yet, with more cauſe to reliſh life than any other people, the Engliſh are much belied if they do not enjoy it leſs. This has been imputed to the climate; but that will not explain the matter; for do you not recollect that we uſed to meet our countrymen, in every province of France and Italy, fretting and frowning, with all the luxuries of life at their command, while the peaſants of the one country were dancing and ſinging in rags, and thoſe of the other

ſtretched on the ground, ſatisfied with the luxuries of ſunſhine and cheſnuts.

'Of what avail is their boaſted philoſophy to the Engliſh, if they are behind other nations in the great ſcience of happineſs? It is pretty generally allowed, even among ourſelves, that we do not make the moſt of life; that is, that we do not enjoy it with all the ſatisfaction that other nations do. Many of us tire of life before it is half over; and a greater proportion abridge its duration voluntarily than of any other country. Beſides this permanent gloom, certain malignant particles, either ariſing from the ſoil, or tranſmitted, like the peſtilence, from another country, ſeem, at particular periods, to infect the minds of our countrymen with the ſpirit of diſſenſion, and impair the happineſs that might be expected from the excellence of their conſtitution, and other advantages which they enjoy over every other people.' Vol. i. p. 85.

A deſcription of the Portugueſe capital, and of the manners and amuſements of its inhabitants, will form a pleaſing extract.

'What remains of the old town gives no favourable idea of what it was before the earthquake in 1755, the ſtreets being narrow, winding, and naſty. In planning the new town, care has been taken to preclude many of the inconveniences of the old: the laſt-mentioned ſeems to have been leſs attended to than the others; but the newly-built houſes are larger, the ſtreets wider, and more regular than thoſe of the old; and in various places they lead into ſquares, of which the old town was deſtitute. The moſt extenſive and moſt magnificent ſquare is that, one of whoſe ſides is formed by the Palace of Inquiſition; it would be thought the moſt agreeable, if the mind were capable of any agreeable idea while in contemplation of that building.

'By raiſing the ground where it was too low, and flattening it where too high, the rapid aſcents and deſcents of the ſtreets, ſo fatiguing in the old town, are diminiſhed in the new.

'Some of the moſt diſguſting cuſtoms that are the ſource of the naſtineſs with which the ſtreets of Liſbon are covered, ſtill continue. Boots may protect the feet of the ſtreet-walker from the filth of the ſtreets; but it is neceſſary to be in a cloſe carriage to have the head equally ſecure from that which is thrown from the windows.

'The lanes and narrow ſtreets are never cleaned; in conſequence of which ſome are almoſt entirely choked up: the other ſtreets would be left to the ſame fate, were it not abſolutely neceſſary to clean them previous to the ceremony of proceſſions.

'Several of the new ſtreets, though planned, are not entirely built; many vacancies are ſtill to be ſeen.

'The houſes in general, previous to the earthquake, 1755, had the melancholy appearance of priſons, with ſmall windows, very

often without glass, from which those within could see the passengers in the street, but could not be seen by them: on this account they were called *zelosias*, or jealousies, their peculiar structure being supposed to have originated from the jealousy of husbands. Indeed they are in some respects emblematic of that passion, as it formerly manifested itself among the Spaniards and Portuguese, and still appears among the Turks, who seem to have no regard to what the inclinations of their women are, provided they can, by walls, and locks, and eunuchs, secure their persons to themselves.

'So the contrivers of those zelosias seem to have had no objection to their wives contemplating the passengers in the street, provided no passenger in the street could obtain a single peep at them. Yet, surely, a man of but a moderate share of refinement or delicacy could have little enjoyment in a woman whom he holds by constraint only, and whose heart he knows to be with another.

'The houses, since the year 1755, and particularly those lately built, have large and convenient windows, and are in general four or five stories in height.

'I expressed surprise to one person that they should have ventured to raise houses to such a height in a town so lately overthrown by an earthquake.

"It is because it has been so lately overthrown," he replied, "that we venture: for as other capitals in Europe deserve an earthquake as much as Lisbon, and none of them have been alarmed with more than the first symptoms hitherto, it is reasonable to believe that they will all have their turn, according to their deserts; and, of course, it will be a long time before it comes round to Lisbon again."

'There are no agreeable public walks belonging to Lisbon, though no spot in Europe unites so many requisites for forming an extensive and delightful walk as the banks of the Tagus, near that city. A scheme for this purpose, I am told, was once in agitation, but it was dropped on account of the strange indifference of the inhabitants for so desirable an object.

'In the days of jealousy the women were not permitted to go to public walks, which, of course, were not much frequented by the men; and now, when there is less jealousy, and the constraint is in a great measure removed, the habit of keeping within doors continues with both sexes.

'The Portuguese women are extremely indolent: their staying so much at home does not proceed from attention to their domestic concerns; their chief employment and common amusement is sitting at the window, beholding the passengers, who are now permitted to behold them also.

'There is a great number of domestics in the usual establishment of a family in tolerable circumstances at Lisbon: those domestics are poorly paid, tawdrily clothed, scantily fed, and as insolent as their masters. When a Portuguese lady goes abroad, if she can at

all afford it, she uses a carriage; those who go to mass a-foot are generally attended by three or four female servants.

'That the Portuguese should entertain a superfluity of servants is the more surprising, because a great number of spies are employed by the intendant of police at Lisbon, and because there is reason to fear that some of those very servants are engaged for that infamous purpose. Were it the object of a government to vitiate the national character, and depress the national spirit, it could not use a more effectual means than by encouraging and rewarding domestic spies; the infallible consequence of which is, to tear asunder all the bonds of mutual confidence among men, to spread distrust, hatred, and terror, into every breast, to make them tremble at the sight of the most subaltern agent in office, to render men unhappy, and to deprive them of every claim to be otherwise.

'In spite of many natural advantages, it is certain that, by the debasing influence of despotism, and the most abject superstition, Portugal has degenerated into one of the weakest kingdoms in Europe. The common people seem to be more oppressed and miserable than in any other country I am acquainted with: their misery is apparent in their dejected looks, and in their meagre bodies, covered with rags and nastiness. Those willing to work are not paid for their labour sufficient to maintain them; many of them are kept from starving by soup, chiefly consisting of the washings of the plates of convents, after the monks have dined.—Is it surprising that they thieve, rob, and sometimes assassinate?

'The influence of the monks (for I am told that the secular clergy are in less estimation) is greater in Portugal than in any Roman-catholic country in Europe. I am assured that there are not a great many families in Lisbon of which some monk or other has not the chief direction.

'Religious processions form the grand and most interesting amusement of the inhabitants of Lisbon; and few things can convey a stronger presumption of the insipidity of their usual style of life than their finding any amusement in those dreary spectacles, which consist of a multitude of men of all conditions, dressed in robes of different colours, with a white stick in each of their hands, slowly following the statue of some saint, with bands of music at intervals, and the whole closed by the monks, of whom the foregoing saint is the patron.

'Yet to those ceremonies the inhabitants of Lisbon flock in crowds, and behold them with admiration. The ladies in particular spend several days, previous to such solemnities, in preparing their richest attire; and on the morning of the happy day, having exhausted all the arts of the toilet to draw forth their charms, they place themselves at the windows and balconies by which the procession is to pass, perhaps several hours before it does pass, and there exhibit, no doubt, a much more brilliant and agreeable spectacle than they behold.

'On the festival of St. Antony of Padua, his statue is carried in procession, superbly dressed in robes of silk, embroidered with gold, and studded with diamonds and precious stones, borrowed from the most opulent families of Lisbon. As those jewels are supposed, after having touched the statue of the saint, to acquire the power of preserving the person who wears them from various diseases, it is not surprising that their proprietors should be exceeding willing to lend them. But how it can be thought that St. Antony, who was of all mankind the most humble, who turned his eyes from the vanities of this world, and who, to the most sumptuous robes, preferred the coarse habit of a Franciscan, should have so greatly altered his taste in dress since he went to heaven, as to choose that of a coquette, is a little unaccountable.

'What should induce the ladies to assist so patiently at those processions has in some degree been explained. The assiduous attendance of the men with their cloaks and white sticks must be imputed entirely to superstitious motives. A notion prevails, that by following some of those processions, in that manner, during seven successive years, a man secures himself from the hazard of dying in a state of reprobation.' Vol. i. P. 93.

The letters on the subject of Spain abound with interesting particulars and sprightly remarks. Our author ingeniously ascribes the *sombre* manners of the Spanish court to the influence of the superstitious character of most of the kings of Spain, and to the various political broils in which that monarchy has been engaged from the time of Philip the Second. The civil war which preceded the establishment of a branch of the Bourbon family on the Spanish throne, in the person of Philip the Fifth, is well known to the readers of European history; and this circumstance, independently of some personal peculiarities, renders the character of that monarch interesting.

'When Philip the Fifth was firmly placed on the throne, and peace restored, he being the native of a country [France] distinguished for ease and vivacity, it was natural to imagine that Spanish formality would have given place to French gallantry at his court: yet, as if there were something in the atmosphere of that place that banishes every appearance of mirth, and inspires gravity, he was no sooner settled in the palace at Madrid, and had paid a few visits to the monastery of the Escurial, than he became reserved and melancholy.

'The character of the founder of this famous convent, as well as the martyrdom of the saint, contributes to excite gloomy ideas. The happy thought of giving the edifice the form of the instrument of the saint's torture is worthy of the genius of Philip the Second, whom the monks dignify with the title of their holy founder; and lest so bright a thought should escape the observation of stran-

gers who viſit the building, the elegant form of a gridiron is repeated on the walls, doors, altars, windows, and robes of the prieſts; ſo that every ſurrounding object conſpires to impreſs on the mind of the ſpectator recollections of tyranny, ſuperſtition, and torture.

'Philip the Fifth, however, was neither tyrannical nor cruel, though as ſuperſtitious and reſerved as any of his predeceſſors.

'The kings of Spain have, for many years, been patterns of conjugal fidelity; and what is fully as remarkable, none of them have been able to ſurpaſs, in that virtue, the prince who was called to their throne from the court of Verſailles.

'So far from thinking of any other bedfellow, that monarch ſeems not to have wiſhed for any other miniſter, friend, or companion, than his wife.

'He not only paſſed every night with her, but every day alſo,—ſick or well he never quitted her: and when affairs of ſtate or étiquette required that others ſhould be preſent, he always ſhowed marks of impatience till he could be again alone with the queen. There never was ſuch a miracle of conſtancy. One would have thought that ſo continued a *tête-à-tête* would have cooled the fierceſt flame on record, and that Antony himſelf, had he been ſo confined with Cleopatra, would have *given the world* to get rid of her.

'It is not probable that Philip would ever have thought of another woman if his firſt queen had lived: his ſorrow, on account of her death, however, did not prevent his marrying again.

'A wife ſeems to have been almoſt a neceſſary of life for this prince: he was not, however, difficult with reſpect to the choice—that he left entirely to others. All he ſeems to have ſtipulated was, that ſhe ſhould be a woman; and, from the moment the ceremony of marriage was performed, that woman became his inſeparable companion and prime-miniſter, as well as his wife. His ſecond wife engroſſed his attention, and every moment of his time, as much as his firſt had done; and, if ſhe had died before him, there is every reaſon to believe that a third wife would have enjoyed all the influence of the former two. Nothing ſurpriſed this uxorious prince ſo much in the character of his countrymen, and particularly in that of his grandfather Lewis the Fourteenth of France, as that they ſhould have ſo little taſte for their own wives, and ſo much for thoſe of other men.

'As Philip ſtood in need of no other amuſement than what his queen afforded, there were ſeldom any entertainments given in the palace; and the court of Philip the Fifth, notwithſtanding his being a Frenchman, was as *ſombre* as that of his Spaniſh predeceſſors. It is not ſurpriſing that others ſhould have tired of it, ſince it became inſupportable to the monarch himſelf, though of all mankind he ſeems to have been the leaſt ſuſceptible of *ennui.*—The fatigue of royalty was too oppreſſive for him; he abdicated the

crown in favour of his ſon Lewis, and retired to the palace of St. Ildefonſo, in hopes of enjoying an uninterrupted *tête-à-tête* with his wife during the remainder of his life. He was deprived of this felicity a few months after he had begun to enjoy it, by the death of his ſon Lewis, and he was obliged to reſume the crown, which, at his own death, deſcended to his ſon Ferdinand the Sixth.' Vol. i. P. 224.

'The uxoriouſneſs of this prince was, according to the following ludicrous anecdote, equaled by his ſuperſtition.

'It is recorded of Philip the Fifth, that, in his will, he ordered 100,000 maſſes to be ſaid for the repoſe of his ſoul; but, that nothing might be waſted, there was a ſaving clauſe, that in caſe a ſmaller number ſhould prove ſufficient to conduct him to heaven, the ſurplus ſhould be performed for the benefit of the ſouls of the poor of the pariſh in which he ſhould die.' Vol. i. P. 229.

The ſubſequent ſketches of his preſent catholic majeſty, of his queen, and the celebrated *Prince of Peace*, will doubtleſs gratify our readers.

'Charles the Fourth, the preſent king, is of an athletic make, fond of exerciſe, temperate, as much attached to his queen as the moſt conſtant of his predeceſſors ever were to theirs, and as little given to jealouſy as any man that ever exiſted.

'Her majeſty, who is a princeſs of Parma, has honoured ſeveral individuals with her diſtinguiſhed patronage; and the men ſhe has delighted to honour have generally become the king's miniſters; for he has the higheſt opinion of her judgment in men, as well as of her conjugal fidelity. To be diſtinguiſhed by the queen's favour was likely, of itſelf, to rouſe ſlander and create envy; but when to that all the power of the ſtate was added, you may imagine what increaſed activity and vigor muſt have been given to both: inſinuations to her majeſty's diſadvantage were conveyed in notes laid on the king's plate under his napkin, thrown into his coach, tranſmitted to him, or brought to his notice, by every means which envy could prompt and malevolent ingenuity contrive, but all without producing the effect intended: he remains fully ſatisfied that his conſort is as faithful to him as he is to her.

'How happy would it be for many wretched huſbands were they of the diſpoſition of this monarch! for as horns are plants of ideal growth, thoſe who repoſe on the virtue of their wives, happen what may, will never feel the pangs of their ſprouting.

'This well-diſpoſed monarch not only ſhuts his ears againſt the queen's calumniators, but he is averſe from believing in the infidelity of married people in general; he conſiders adultery as one of the greateſt of crimes, and a belief of its frequency one of the moſt dangerous opinions that can prevail in this age of dangerous opinions; becauſe it tends to ſhake the reverence of children to their

parents, and the loyalty of subjects to their sovereign, by suggesting that even the blood-royal may have been adulterated by plebeian mixture; an idea which cannot fail to diminish the veneration due to it. The well-disposed prince cannot believe that a crime pregnant with such mischief ever prevailed; or, if it ever did, it must have been in the ages of heathen darkness, and among the lowest vulgar. The notion that it prevails now, he thinks, can only be entertained by men speculating in their closets, and drawing inferences from the customs of the ancients, but totally unacquainted with the manners of modern times.

'A thousand peculiarities respecting this prince mark him as a good natured man: subject to sudden fits of anger, he is quickly pacified, and impatient to make reparation to his attendants for whatever he has said or done, during his passion, that was too violent or disobliging. When any of them falls sick, or meets with a disagreeable accident, he shows a degree of compassion and sympathy that is not common in princes.

'The person who gave me this account, and on whose veracity I have the fullest reliance, said he was witness to the king's shedding tears when one of his life-guards broke his leg by a fall from his horse as he rode by his majesty's coach.

'He is said to be very little acquainted with business, though he regularly sits in council, with the queen at his side: and though his ministers are supposed to be selected by the queen, she is so observant of decorum, that she expresses no opinion in words while sitting in council; but they generally understand by her looks what she approves or disapproves, and they act accordingly. When the Prince of Peace possessed her favour, she usually sent for him to the king's apartment after the breaking-up of the council, informed him of what had been resolved, gave directions respecting the execution, and then looked at the king, who confirmed what she said by a nod.

'Her countenance is more distinguished for penetration than for either beauty or good-nature; yet she contrives to throw off its usual sourness when strangers are presented, and receives them with a smile and the appearance of graciousness.

'There is nothing mighty amusing, you see, in all this pantomime, which is only varied by melancholy card-parties, or conversation-parties, still more melancholy, composed of the attendants in rotation.

'Though the minister of each different department transacts business with the king, yet they were little more than clerks under the Prince of Peace, who, in all respects, except a few forms, was supreme minister.

'His name originally was Don Manuel Godoi, the son of an hidalgo of Badego, in Estremadura, of an ancient family, in very narrow circumstances: he was educated as people in his situation usually are in the provinces of Spain; and when he arrived at the

proper age, entered as a private soldier in the company of life-guards, where he served for several years, until he had the good fortune to be distinguished by royal penetration, and raised to supreme favour. He is a man of address, and rather of genteel manners: he has endeavoured to repair the deficiencies of his education by study. He was disposed to encourage science, and give protection to men of letters. He always showed a partiality for the English, and a desire to prevent a rupture between Spain and Great-Britain.' Vol. i. P. 233.

The proverbial jealousy of the Spaniards seems now to exist only as an ingredient in the composition of novels; but we are sorry that the gravity of the Spanish character has not better preserved the morals of the capital.

'I do not know whether the opinions and example of the present king have banished jealousy from the capital of Spain; but, certainly, there is as little appearance of it in Madrid as in any town in Europe. It were to be wished that the tranquillity which husbands now seem to enjoy on that head was derived, like that of his majesty, from a consciousness of their own chastity: but the very reverse of this is true, if I can rely on the account of some, who, by a long residence in that city, and an extensive acquaintance with the inhabitants, may be supposed to have acquired a more accurate knowledge of their manners than the king had any opportunity of doing.

'Though far less gay, the manners of the inhabitants of Madrid were, when I was there, much on a level, in point of profligacy, with those of the Parisians before the revolution: since that period, undoubtedly, the latter have, in that article, surpassed all rivalship.

'This alteration in the manners of the Spaniards, in the midst of the evil that it has produced, seems to have had one good effect; namely, that there is hardly any such thing as assassination on account of jealousy; and the profession of a bravo has fallen into total decay.' Vol. i. P. 242.

The second volume commences with the story of the marchioness de ———. It is affecting, and displays in very lively colours the vicissitudes and atrocities of the French revolution. The remainder of the work contains letters between the countess of Deanport and a Mr. Grindill, miss Clifford and lady Diana Franklin, Mordaunt (who arrives in England), and colonel Sommers. The countess, an artful and profligate woman, and her correspondent, an unprincipled adventurer, are well-drawn characters; and, in their letters to each other, our author exhibits a masterly acquaintance with the science of the world. Miss Clifford, who after many obstacles is united to Mordaunt, does not resemble the heroine

of a common novel: her accomplishments are bestowed with discrimination, and there is a noble but chaste freedom of outline in her character, which, however, might have been more highly finished. Lady Diana Franklin, an *old maid* of amiable temper and sound understanding, is the Mentor of miss Clifford; and it would be well if every young female had the benefit of such excellent advice as the latter receives from her friend. The specimen of matrimonial affection and domestic happiness in colonel and Mrs. Sommers must be highly gratifying to the feelings of the virtuous; but, in the character of Mordaunt, there is a dash of libertinism, which the admirers of the ideal excellence of Grandison will not approve. In delineating the subordinate characters of his novel, the author shows a skilful acquaintance with the various scenes of the drama of life: lord Deanport and Mr. Darnley supply the contrast of a conceited nobleman and a sensible commoner; and of Travers, the friend of Mordaunt, every reader, as in the Mercutio of Shakspeare, will regret the transient introduction. We have confined our extracts to the first volume, though the matter which it contains is not strictly relevant to the story of the work. Of the latter, however, on account of its epistolary form, an analysis could not conveniently be given; and, without such an explanation, many passages must have been unintelligible. We have therefore given a preference to more popular topics of information; but, in the other parts of the work, those who have been pleased with the former productions of this writer, will not be disappointed.

The style of Mordaunt, like that of doctor Moore's other writings, is sprightly and agreeable; but we have observed with surprise some vulgar phrases, such as '*to cut a figure*,' &c. and also many grammatical inaccuracies, which, as they must have arisen from mere inattention, cannot easily be excused in a writer of such celebrity.

Travels through the United States of North America, the Country of the Iroquois, and Upper Canada, in the Years 1795, 1796, *and* 1797; *with an authentic Account of Lower Canada. By the Duke de la Rochefoucault Liancourt.* 2 *Vols.* 4*to.* 2*l.* 14*s. Boards.* Phillips. 1799.

THE struggles of the first inhabitants of a new and untried country, the alternate successes and disappointments which they experience, form an interesting subject of contemplation, as well as an instructive lesson for subsequent adventurers. The vast country now comprehended within the territories of the United States, the varied soils, and the different productions, will long contribute to supply this interest or this instruction.

The ſtore is exceedingly copious; and, though our preſent traveller has united great attention to no common abilities, much muſt remain for future inveſtigation.

'It is to the philoſophical enquirer, of whatever nation, that ſuch details as the following volume contains, concerning the ſtate of life and manners in America, are likely to be the moſt acceptable and inſtructive. The progreſs of colonization; the firſt diffuſion of new inhabitants through unappropriated waſtes; the ſluggiſh aukwardneſs of infant huſbandry; the relapſe into barbariſm of thoſe outcaſts from poliſhed ſociety, whom their fortune conducts into regions, where they can converſe only with the wildneſs of rude nature, and where they are deſtitute of all the accommodations of the arts; the ſimplicity of government, and of life and manners, that is natural in countries where population is ſcanty, and in which the ſubdiviſions of labour, and all the complex accommodations of ſociety, are unknown; the curious contraſt between colonial and ſavage manners, and the effects of the colliſion between barbariſm and civility; topics intereſting to philoſophy, above almoſt all others in the hiſtory of human nature, and, of all, the moſt imperfectly known; are to be now, for the firſt time, fully elucidated, by a vigilant and unremitting obſervation of the phaſes of ſocial life in America. For the purpoſes of aſcertaining and illuſtrating the moſt important principles of general polity and juriſprudence, how often have philoſophers in vain attempted to explore the forgotten and unrecorded beginnings of civil life! How often lamented, that the moſt intereſting period in the progreſs of ſociety, ſhould thus be prior to the age of enlightened obſervation! How often and how ridiculouſly laboured to ſupply the deficiency of records by that ſort of theory which has been pompouſly chriſtened Conjectural Hiſtory!' Vol. i. p. v.

While we acknowledge the juſtneſs of ſome of our tranſlator's other remarks, reſpecting the peculiar intereſt that we muſt feel in the picture thus preſented to us of the vigorous progreſs of the ſcions chiefly from our own ſtock, we cannot fully agree with him in his opinion of its importance in the view juſt ſtated. The different ſettlers admit no compariſon. Thoſe who emigrate to America from Great-Britain, France, or Germany, carry their own ideas, either civil or political; they are, in a great degree, civiliſed, their manners are formed, and their views concentred in ſome ſocial union. The colonies of ancient Greece and of Rome had little of ſuch civiliſation: they were only leſs ſavage than the aborigines whom they found, and their chief ſuperiority conſiſted in their military ſcience. They were gradually ſoftened and refined when peace had ſucceeded to conqueſt; and they owed their laws and regulations to ſome ſuperior genius, or ſome civiliſed ſtranger. It is indeed true, that the back-ſettler, in America,

soon degenerates into the savage state of the earlier Grecian colonists; and his views must again expand, as circumstances favour or force their evolution. Yet it is difficult wholly to eradicate what has been so forcibly implanted; and the successors of each nation, which has supplied the colonists, are still distinguished by their peculiar manners and sentiments.

The author is one of those benevolent noblemen, who, having loosened the chains of a frantic multitude, suffered by its excesses. Disappointment has soured his temper, and given an asperity to his remarks. Though protected, and in some degree supported by Great-Britain, he bears in his bosom the utmost rancour against this fostering parent. Let us attend to his own words.

'I am at a loss to account to myself for the various perceptions, which pressed upon my mind, and prevented my feelings from being entirely absorbed by gratitude, and by the pleasing sensations it naturally produces. I love the English more, perhaps, than any other Frenchman; I have been constantly well treated by the English; I have friends among them; I acknowledge the many great qualities and advantages which they possess. I detest the horrid crimes which stain the French revolution, and which destroyed so many objects of my love and esteem: I am banished from France; my estates are confiscated; by the government of my country I am treated as a criminal or corrupt citizen; severed from all I held dear, I have been reduced to extreme, inexpressible misery, by Robespierre, and the rest of the ruffians, whom my countrymen have suffered to become their tyrants; nor are my misfortunes yet consummated—and yet, the love of my country, this innate feeling, now so painful to me, so clashing with my present situation, holds an absolute sway over my soul, and pursues me here more closely than elsewhere. This English flag, under which I am sailing over lakes where the French flag was so long displayed; these forts, these guns, the spoils of France, this constant obvious proof of our former weakness and of our misfortunes, give me pain, perplex and overpower me to a degree which I am at a loss to explain. The success, last year, obtained by lord Howe, which the English mention with more frankness, because they suppose our interest to be intimately connected with theirs; the eagerness they display in announcing new defeats of the French, the accounts of which are prefaced by the assurance, that English triumphs and exertion shall reinstate us in the possession of our estates, and followed with congratulations; all these common topics of conversation, which our guests seem to introduce with the best intention, prove more painful to my feelings, as I am necessitated to hide my thoughts, lest I should be deemed a fool by the few, in whose eyes I am no jacobin, no Robespierrian, and because I am, as it were, at cross purposes with myself. And yet it is a sentiment rooted, deeply rooted in

my soul, that I would continue poor and banished, all the days of my life, rather than owe my restoration to my country and my estates, to the influence of foreign powers, and to British pride. I hear of no defeat of the French armies, without grief, or of any of their triumphs, without my self-love being gratified to a degree, which at times I take not sufficient care to conceal*. And yet, notwithstanding these feelings, the confession of which may appear ridiculous in my present situation, I cannot discern the period, when anarchy shall cease in my ill-fated country, and liberty, regulated by wise and efficient laws, afford happiness at least to those, who are not banished; when France shall rest her glory on a safe and lasting foundation.' Vol. i. P. 262.

The confession of these feelings is not 'ridiculous' only; the indulgence of them, for a moment, is unjustifiable; and perhaps M. de Rochefoucault might have confessed something still more reprehensible. He travelled at the time when the British influence was gaining the ascendency; yet he tells us that he found every one in the French interest, every heart open to the French, every voice congratulating their victories or lamenting their defeats. This opinion would not have been so warmly expressed, had it not been known that it was pleasing to the traveller; and, after the confession we have transcribed, we may believe, without a great breach of charity, that the general predilection was not suffered to languish without the cheerings of his approbation, the flame not permitted to decay, without the animating gale of his applause. We may add, that, at the time of his visit, the commercial treaty between Great-Britain and the United States had not long been concluded; and it meets, as may be expected, with his strong reprehensions. Having given his reasons, he hints that these were the topics of his arguments in conversation, seemingly with a view to prevent the treaty from receiving the approbation of the congress. We can never disapprove the generous support of French emigrants by this country, but we must lament the depravity of many individuals, who avail themselves of this protection, to discover the unprotected part into which the dagger may be most securely planted. We have noticed the conduct of La Fayette and Pérouse in this respect, as well as of our traveller. May we never have occasion to add to the list! Against M. de la Rochefoucalt, the governors of Canada appear to have been on their guard. Lord Dorchester forbade his travelling

* 'These "*Confessions d'un Emigré*," which ingenuously express the true sentiments of a very considerable part of the emigrated French nobility and gentry, are not, it seems, unworthy of the notice of foreign powers, and especially of our government. A French emigrant, who acted in the West Indies as field-officer in the British service, regretted that the "*pavillon chéri*" was not waving at the mast-head of the vessel, on board of which he was going to combat the French.—*Transl.*

through Lower Canada; and General Simcoe, perhaps, equally knowing the tendency of his viſit, made him the vehicle of ſuch intelligence as he wiſhed to convey to the Gallo-American government of that time, and amuſed him with plans which he could not intend to carry into execution.

With this political depravity at his heart, we cannot be always pleaſed with the man; yet we cannot but eſteem his account of riſing colonies, ſtruggling with difficulties, with diſeaſe, and often with want. The deſcriptions are clear and explicit, and the obſervations, in general, are judicious. As we cannot follow him minutely, we ſhall give a ſketch of his tour, and ſelect a few of the prominent features of the picture.

In the earlier part of the tour, he proceeded from Philadelphia to Morris-Town; thence, northward, to Wilkeſbarre, the Aſylum, Friendſmill, Geneſſee; and, weſtward, to Buffalo Creek, Fort Erie, and Lake Ontario. He viſited the Britiſh ſettlements on Lake Ontario, in Upper Canada; and, having returned to Fort Oſwego, repaired to Albany, Boſton, and Philadelphia.

The account of the Dunkers, in the neighbourhood of Lancaſter, is intereſting; but the principal tenets and the general conduct of this ſociety are well known. Their vow of chaſtity is apparently not better obſerved than their pretended ſelf-denial in other reſpects. Even in this democratic, or rather republican ſociety of monks, the principal aſſumes diſtinctions of rank. Our author's brief ſketch of the phyſical and moral ſtate of this part of America we will ſelect.

'A relaxation is obſervable among all orders of ſociety. Drunkenneſs is the prevailing vice, and, with few exceptions, the ſource of all other evils. A ſpirit, or rather habit of equality, is diffuſed among this people, as far as it poſſibly can go. In ſeveral inns, eſpecially ſuch as are ſituate on leſs frequented roads, the circumſtance of our ſervant not dining with us at the ſame table excited general aſtoniſhment, without its beſpeaking any bad intention on the part of thoſe who manifeſted it. The inhabitants exhibit to ſtrangers ſtriking inſtances both of the utmoſt cleanlineſs and exceſſive naſtineſs. They are much ſurpriſed at a refuſal, to ſleep with one or two other men in the ſame bed, or between dirty ſheets, or to drink after ten other perſons out of the ſame dirty glaſs; and they wonder no leſs, when they ſee ſtrangers neglect to waſh their hands and face every morning. Whiſky mixed with water is the common drink in the country. There is no ſettler, however poor, whoſe family do not drink coffee and chocolate, and eat ſalt meat at breakfaſt. At dinner comes ſalt meat again, or ſalt fiſh and eggs; and at ſupper, once more ſalt meat and coffee. This is alſo the general rule in inns. An American ſits down at the table of his landlord, and lies down in the bed, which he finds empty, or

occupied but by one person, without in the least enquiring, in the latter of these cases, who that person may be. We have hitherto fortunately escaped a personal trial of this last American custom, but were very near experiencing it at White's.

'The roads are good, where the soil is so, the road by Lancaster excepted; art has hitherto but little meddled with the roads in Pennsylvania. Such spots as are bad and muddy are filled up with trees, placed near each other; when these sink into the ground, others are laid upon them. Over small brooks, bridges are thrown, which consist of boards, placed on two beams, laid along the banks of the brook. These boards frequently rot, and remain in this condition for months together, without its entering into any one's head to replace them with others. We have passed several such bridges, with great danger to our horses, from the bad condition of the boards. All this will be better in time; yet I mean to describe things just as they are now. Creeks are generally forded. Across some, which are very deep, wooden bridges are thrown; which, however, are not such as they should be: the boards, or small trees, with which they are covered, are neither so good, nor so close to each other, as might be wished.' Vol. i. p. 68.

Dr. Priestley is settled at Northumberland; and M. de la Rochefoucault gives some anecdotes of this celebrated emigrant and his family.

'The persecution experienced by Dr. Priestley would hardly have driven him so soon to quit England, had he not expected to enjoy in America that high celebrity and distinction, which were promised him by some flattering friends. His celebrity was, however, of no long duration; the Americans are too little sensible of the value of that knowledge by which he has acquired so distinguished a rank among the literati of the age. They concern themselves but very little about dogmatical discussions of the Bible, and the tenets of the Unitarians; and would readily give up all the experiments on air for one good and profitable speculation! The persecuted from various countries have, in these late years, sought an asylum among the Americans; such arrivals, are, therefore, no uncommon sight to this people; and they have not much time to lose in vain civilities. Under these circumstances, the respect shown to Dr. Priestley, who is a profound philosopher, an admired writer, a celebrated chemist, and a victim of the English ministry, did not last long. A few dinners, given to him at New York, where he landed, and at Philadelphia, to which place he afterwards proceeded, formed the whole train of honours which graced his reception. His son, who arrived in America some time before him, had bought lands, where all the Unitarians, and all the persecuted of old England, were to join and rally under the doctor's banner. This settlement was to enjoy a distinguished protection on the part of the American government; and to secure to

the doctor a name, as chief of the sect, and founder of the colony. But these hopes have already vanished. No Englishmen have arrived to purchase his lands; and the government of the United States, even that of Pennsylvania, did not consider the project of the doctor's settlement as more important than that of any other individual. The constant praise of his uncommon merits as a natural philosopher induced his friends at Philadelphia to solicit for him the professorship of chemistry in the college, which they obtained; but this place was far beneath the expectation of the doctor, as well as of his family; and it became necessary, even for the preservation of his celebrity in Europe, to withdraw from a scene, where his attempt of attracting universal attention had completely failed.

'He therefore removed to Northumberland. The lands, purchased by his son, were situate in that county, though he had actually resolved to relinquish the idea of founding a colony, which would have had no colonists but his own family; yet his removal to Northumberland, at least had not the appearance of an intention to abandon, in so abrupt a manner, a project which had already been announced to the world.

'As Mr. Guillemard was slightly acquainted with young Priestley, and more particularly with Mr. Cooper, who has also settled in Northumberland, we were induced to prefer halting at that town, rather than at Sunbury, though both lay on our road; that I might gratify the wish which I entertained, to be introduced to a man so justly celebrated. The project of forming the intended settlement in the country is entirely relinquished; Mr. Morris has generously taken back the greater part of the lands which young Priestley bought of him last year, with all the formalities prescribed by law. He has also found means to dispose of the rest, and has bought some land near the town, which he is now clearing and preparing for cultivation. The doctor has built a house, to which he intends removing about the end of the summer. His modes of life and dress are nearly the same as in England, the wig excepted, which he has laid aside. He frequently laughs at the world, but in a manner which clearly appears not to be from his heart. He spoke with great moderation of the political affairs of Europe, and in very mild expressions of England. He is now busied in the institution of a college, for which six thousand dollars have already been subscribed, and seven thousand acres have been assigned him, as a free gift. In this establishment, of which he has drawn up a prospectus, there is a president's place, doubtless intended for himself.' Vol. i. p. 74.

Our traveller afterwards represents an austerity of manners, and a peculiar claim of precedence by Dr. Priestley's family, as reasons with many for declining to settle in this neighbourhood. We are sorry to observe, also, that the domestic hours of the philosopher are not soothed by friendship and good neighbourhood, some misunderstanding having taken place be-

tween him and his neighbour Mr. Cooper. With excellent talents, he might have been what he wished, had he not aimed at every thing.

At Friendsmill, M. de la Rochefoucault met with a sect of seceding quakers. The chief of this sect was a female quaker, who assumed the title of the All-Friend, and superintended the spiritual concerns of the society, 'keeping her state' with much dignity, under the idea of something superior to humanity. Yet the prying eyes and inquisitive disposition of our author seem to have detected circumstances not altogether spiritual in some part of her conduct; and a young novice was a witness of a conversion not unlike that which is mentioned in the Bath Guide of the facetious Anstey. At present, from these and other causes, her influence is declining: but Jemima may, perhaps, possess sufficient worldly policy to carry on her farce to her last moments; and Rachel Miller, her assistant, may continue it a little longer.

The establishments of captain Williamson, on the north of Friendsmill, and between Jemima's territory and Lake Ontario, are on a very extensive scale. His plans, and the foundations of his success, are explained at length: yet it cannot be concealed, that epidemic fevers taint the otherwise glowing prosperity of the establishment; and there is a striking contrast between this, and the district of the Maine, on the north-east of Boston, where the cultivator, though poor, appears healthy and happy. The country, in the midst of these small lakes, situated on the south of Lake Ontario, is described from actual observation. The sketch of Indian manners, observed in this spot, offers nothing very interesting. The Indians were regaled with rum, and they were, of course, in the French interest. With the same treat from English hands, they would have been adherents to our cause. The mineralogical observations, in this part of the tour, we will select.

'In the vicinity of Philadelphia the rocks are all composed of granite or gneiss. The most common is a granite interspersed with mica, and you frequently meet with large strata of mica or talc. The strata of these rocks incline towards the horizon, forming an angle of about forty-five degrees. The layer of earth, spread over them, is generally a sort of sand of the same quality as the rock. Under this bed of sand, a hard sort of clay is frequently met with.

'This large mass of granite is intersected by veins of hornstone, calcareous spars, and other lime-stones, with very good marble. On the banks of the Schuylkill, and especially near Norristown, a vein of fine marble shoots out of the surface; it is connected with the rock of granite, which, towards the north-west, borders upon the river.

'The direction of all these veins generally forms a right angle

with that of the ſtratum of granite, and they uſually drop in a line perpendicular to the horizon.

'In the whole neighbourhood, no petrifactions are found of marine animals and plants, or of any thing ſimilar; but in holes, dug in the ground, as well as in brooks, a ſtone is frequently met with of a looſe and granulated texture, which is eaſily pulveriſed, and bears a cloſe affinity to fluor.

'Further northwards, the ſoil, which before was much covered with mica, begins to be leſs ſo, and the rocks contain leſs granite. Near the creek Perkioming, a reddiſh argillaceous ſlate is found, with which the country in general abounds, till you come within nine miles of Reading. Here begin ſtrata of a ſtone of a light grey, and ſometimes of a blueiſh colour, which breaks into large ſquare pieces, and ſeems to be a ſpecies of fluor.

'On the road to Reading, at a ſmall diſtance from that place, are found large maſſes of a kind of pudding-ſtone, conſiſting of fragments of gneiſs and ſlate, imbedded in a dark grey baſaltes.

'Near this ſpot is found calcareous ſpar, but in ſmall quantities; and in the vicinity of Reading is much lime-ſtone.

'We were told, that pudding-ſtone, in this country, is never found in ſtrata; it is commonly of a dark red colour, which is rather dull.

'The country about Lancaſter, alſo, abounds in lime-ſtone, but without any impreſſion of marine animals. The adjacent ſtrata conſiſt of a greyiſh ſlate, and ſink deep into the ground.

'On the banks of the Suſquehannah a ſtratum of ſandy loam covers the perpendicular veins of gneiſs and ſlate, which, at times, form conſiderable maſſes.

'Near Middle Town the rocks are of a reddiſh colour, and contain much clay. On paſſing the Peters' mountains, you meet with much granite; yet ſlate predominates. The rocks, which form the baſes of the mountains, or the ſteep banks of the river, on the road from Northumberland to Aſylum, exhibit but little variety in a mineralogical point of view. In ſome places, the ſlate breaks readily into ſmall plates, which are made uſe of to cover the roofs of houſes. No granite appears any more; and both in brooks and rivers free-ſtone is found, with impreſſions of ſea animals and plants. Quartz diſappears by degrees. The ſoil conſiſts of ſand, except in plains, meadows, and low grounds, which are covered with either rotten plants or vegetable earth. The ground, in general, is ſo much covered with earth, that a traveller, who has no time to explore rocks and ſtone-quarries, will hardly be able to form a complete and diſcriminative idea of the minerals of this country.

'Near Loyalſock ſtones are to be found, which have the appearance of baſaltes. Some contain mica, but in a very ſmall proportion. Above Aſylum the rocks are of an argillaceous compoſition. The ſoil in the neighbourhood is, for the moſt part, rich and fertile. The ſtrata incline with a leſs acute angle, and frequently run pa-

rallel to the horizon. The ſtone, when broken, appears of a teſtaceous texture, and its grain reſembles metallic particles, not yet perfectly formed. Free-ſtone is frequent, and ſo is baſalt. Broad level plains, expoſed to inundation, form the greater part of the territory, which extends towards the diſtrict of Geneſſee. At Painted Poſt, the water roſe, in December 1797, nineteen feet above the common level for the ſummer months. The depth of the layers of earth, and the ſwamps, greatly obſtruct mineralogical reſearches.

'The firſt ſtrata, in which I found marine bodies in their native beds, are in the vicinity of the ſmall lakes, between Lake Seneca and Crooked Lake. Near Friendſmill and Friendſlanding, oyſter-ſhells, with remains of other teſtaceous animals, are found in a ſoft argillaceous ſtone. Farther weſt the argillaceous ſtones diſappear, and are ſucceeded by calcareous. The country grows more and more flat; but wherever the nature of the ground, or moraſſes, did not prevent us from examining into the nature and form of the ſtrata, they ran nearly parallel to the horizon. They are, for the moſt part, of a calcareous compoſition, and contain numerous remains and impreſſions of ſea animals. Of this deſcription are moſt of the ſtones in Big Plain, on the Buffalo Creek, on the banks of Lake Erie, at leaſt at its extremity, the only part which we traverſed, and on the ſouthern bank of the river, as far as Niagara.' Vol. i. p. 187.

Theſe facts ſeem to ſhow that the lakes were once a part of a vaſt mediterranean ſea, dividing the eaſtern from the weſtern part of America; and ſhould the weight and force of the waters deſtroy the rocks, which form the vaſt caſcade of Niagara, the lakes above, comprehending a vaſt extent of ſea, would equally diſappear for a time, increaſe thoſe below, and at laſt leave the whole a dry, probably a fertile ground. At preſent the country, to the ſouth of Lake Ontario, reſembles that on the eaſt of the Baltic. It is gradually left by the water, and has all the imperfections of a ſituation thus emerging from the deep. The deſcription of the Fall of Niagara we muſt ſelect.

'At Chippaway the grand ſpectacle begins. The river, which has been conſtantly expanding from Fort Erie to this place, is here upwards of three miles wide; but on a ſudden it is narrowed, and the rapidity of the ſtream redoubled by the declivity of the ground on which it flows, as well as the ſudden contraction of its bed. The channel is rocky; and the interſperſed fragments of rocks encreaſe the violence of the ſtream. The country is flat and even to this point; but here a range of white rocks ariſes on each ſide of the river, which is contracted to half a mile's breadth. This range is a branch of the Alleghany mountains, which, proceeding from Florida, previouſly to their reaching this point, interſect the whole continent of America. The river, more cloſely hemmed in by the rocks on the right, incroaching upon its channel, branches into

two arms, one of which flows along the bank, formed by the rocks on the right; and the other, far more conſiderable, being ſeparated by a ſmall iſland, makes ſtraight on to the left, and ſweeps through a baſon of ſtone, which it fills with much foam and noiſe. At length, being again obſtructed by other rocks, which it meets on its right, it alters its courſe with redoubled violence; and along with the right arm ruſhes down a perpendicular ledge of rocks one hundred and ſixty feet high, nearly half concave, and probably worn out by the inceſſant impetuoſity of the waters. Its width is nearly equal to that of its bed, the uniformity of which is only interrupted by an iſland, which ſeparates the two arms, reſts unſhaken on its rocky baſis, and ſeems, as it were, to ſwim between the two ſtreams, which ruſh down at once into this ſtupendous chaſm. The waters of the lakes Erie, Michigan, St. Clair, Huron, and Lake Superiour, and of the numerous rivers, emptying themſelves into theſe lakes, inceſſantly replace the water that thus daſhes down. The water of the falls tumbles perpendicularly on the rocks. Its colour is, at times, a dark green, at others a foaming white, brilliant throughout, and diſplaying a thouſand variegations, as it is ſtruck by the rays of the ſun, or, according to the time of the day, the ſtate of the atmoſphere, the force of the wind, &c. The water, which ruſhes down the rocks, riſes in part in a thick column of miſt, often towering above the height of the falls, and mixing with the clouds. The remainder, broken in its perpendicular deſcent by fragments of rocks, is in continual agitation; ſpouts and foams, and caſts on ſhore logs of wood, whole trees, boats, and wrecks, which the ſtream has ſwept along in its courſe. The bed of the river, formed by the two ridges of rocks which extend a great way farther, is ſtill more narrowed, as if part of this mighty ſtream had vaniſhed during the fall, or were ſwallowed up by the earth. The noiſe, agitation, irregularity, and rapid deſcent of the ſtream, continue ſeven or eight miles farther on, and the river does not become ſufficiently placid for a ſafe paſſage till it reaches Queenſtown, nine miles from the falls.' Vol. i. p. 218.

In Upper Canada, our author's obſervations are very particular; and he traces the plans of general Simcoe with preciſion and minuteneſs. He does great juſtice to the ſpirit of enterpriſe, the extenſive views, the judgement, the prudence, and, in general, the great abilities of that governor; but cenſures him for his old animoſity to the Americans, imbibed during the war of the revolution, and ill concealed in his common converſation. It requires no deep penetration to ſee that the ſentiments of the general, on theſe ſubjects, were deſigned for the American government; that he knew the character of his viſitant, and managed his converſation accordingly. He ſpoke daggers, but uſed none.

Our author, from his converſation with the Canadians, re-

peatedly inculcates their hatred of the English, and predilection for the French. He could do no harm in Upper Canada, which, he is compelled to admit, is chiefly inhabited by loyalists; but, in Lower Canada, he might have disseminated poison, had a war ensued. Yet he severely censures lord Dorchester for refusing him admission within these territories: as well might he censure the constructor of a lazaretto for guarding against a pestilence. That it would be useful or indeed expedient to resign Canada, or to allow it to be incorporated with the United States, is a question too delicate or too profound for our traveller's politics, and unfit to be discussed in this place. The arguments adduced by him are evidently those of a partisan, with no political acumen.

The fur trade of Canada is represented as detrimental, without the profit of the goods, in which the assistants are paid: but, on this head, we distrust our author's representations. The crooked politics of the professed partisan are too conspicuous in his reasoning on this subject. From the detail of general Simcoe's plans, there is little doubt that the whole of the fur trade, with all its profits or losses, may, if such be the wish of our government, be retained by Great-Britain.

In the way from Upper Canada to Albany, our author passed through the district of Saratoga. He speaks of the disastrous events of general Burgoyne's expedition, with what we consider to be, in his situation, an indecent warmth. In this part of the tour he also discusses the treaty of commerce with America, which, as we have said, he warmly disapproves, chiefly for this reason, that it must separate America from France, '*her true and natural ally.*' America has since seen how well France has deserved that title. The translator ascribes the inveteracy to England, evinced in this work, to an anxious wish for a reconciliation with the directory. But whatever may have been the means of effecting this at the moment, those which the traveller has adopted must alienate the Americans from the French; nor does he conceal, that every Frenchman whom he met cordially detested the Americans by whose government he was protected.

At Boston, his hatred to England blazes with little control, and is concealed with less reserve. Injurious and malicious insinuations are conveyed in pointed terms; and '*the humiliation of England*' is declared to be the object nearest his heart.

Our traveller, disappointed in his visit to Lower Canada, executed his intention of visiting the district of the Maine, to the north and east of Boston, through which he originally intended to have come from Quebec. His object was to visit general Knox, whom he met in his journey from Albany to Boston. This district is poor and infertile; but it bestows

the chief of bleſſings, health, and the inhabitants appear contented and happy. The fishery forms a valuable and important object in this part of America, and the details are full and apparently accurate. The picture is very different from what the other parts of America afford. Inſtead of agriculture, fiſheries, ſhip-building, and lime-burning, are the chief employments; and the inhabitants can thus procure corn from the more genial ſoils of the United States, at a leſs expenſe than they can cultivate it. Our author endeavours to ſhow, that they might raiſe a ſufficiency of it for themſelves; but this is the ſhallow policy of modern reformers; for each diſtrict ought to produce that for which its climate is beſt fitted, and which can be obtained at the leaſt expenſe of labour or time, and the other wants ſhould be ſupplied from various regions. The facts, however, and the ſtate of the different ſettlements, in this part, which M. de la Rochefoucault records and deſcribes, are important, as he had the beſt means of information.

'The country is healthful, though much colder than the great land-holders are willing to allow. Fogs and rains are more frequent here than in the more ſouthern parts of America. The maritime ſituation of the province of Maine, contributes, no doubt, to increaſe the humidity of its atmoſphere. The perpetual dampneſs on the ſea coaſt produces a greater occaſion for warm and conſtant fires there, than in the interior parts. But, however rigorous the climate, it is ſufficiently favourable to the production of maize, and of excellent hay. Nor is there any juſt reaſon for ſuppoſing, that wheat and other grains would not thrive in it, if carefully cultivated.

'Life is uſually long and healthy in this province. It is not uncommon to meet with old men of the age of eighty or ninety years, though the general condition of the people be but miſerable, at leaſt in that part of the country through which I accompanied general Knox. Save the brothers Almas, we found none who could be ſaid to be even moderately intelligent. They are univerſally poor, or at leaſt live as if they were ſo in an extreme degree. The habitations are every where poor low huts. Every where you find a dirty, dark coloured, rye-meal, and that not in ſufficient quantity. The ſort of freſh meat to be ſeen on any table is that of lambs, which are killed, not ſo much for the ſake of procuring a good diſh, as to prevent the ſheep-flock from becoming more numerous than is deſired. In ſhort, of all America, the province of Maine is the place that afforded me the worſt accommodation. And, conſidering how little reaſon I found to praiſe the accommodations of many other places, what I have now ſaid of Maine muſt be regarded as an affirmation, that the condition of human life in that place is exceedingly wretched.

'The common drink here, and throughout all America, is grog,

or a mixture of water with rum or whisky. It is made alſo with gin or brandy, but not in theſe parts.

'A ſort of beer, made from the twigs of the ſpruce-fir, is likewiſe drunk here. Molaſſes, and occaſionally maple-tree ſugar, are joined with the ſpruce twigs, in brewing this beverage.' Vol. i. P. 443.

The remainder of this part of the tour, through the Maſſachuſets, Rhode Iſland, Connecticut, and New York, to Philadelphia, contains a valuable account of the trade and agriculture of theſe provinces. Along this coaſt granite appears to abound; but occaſionally ſandſtone, ſchiſtus, and limeſtone, occur.

Through the whole of the tour, agriculture and its various operations and inſtruments were obſerved by our traveller with particular attention. The climate, and the ſtate of the thermometer, were alſo carefully noticed by him.' We may add, that his deſcription of the northern and eaſtern regions of the United States may be conſidered as a valuable, and generally faithful, account of a country hitherto little known in its minute details.

(To be continued.)

A Commentary, with Notes, on Part of the Book of the Revelation of John. By the late John Snodgraſs, D. D. Miniſter of the Middle Church of Paiſley. 8vo. No Publiſher's Name. 1799.

EVERY attempt to illuſtrate or interpret the revelation made to the Chriſtian church by the beloved apoſtle, will, when it evidently proceeds from a pious and well-diſpoſed mind, be received by us with grateful ſatisfaction. We may differ from the writer in the interpretation of many parts of the Revelations; we may conceive, that in ſome places too great ſtreſs is laid on recent events, and that, in others, the obſcurity of the ſubject has given riſe to fanciful theories; yet, concluding that the apoſtle did not in vain predict happineſs to thoſe who make this book the object of their ſtudy, we are convinced that the world derives great benefit from the labours of good men in this career of holy knowledge, and that the mind is improved and enlarged in developing the myſteries of our religion, without regard to the ſcoffs of atheiſts and unbelievers. The period in which we live calls loudly for ſtrict attention to this part of the ſcriptures; and, while piety expects with reverence the completion of the prophetic word, the judgements of God now upon the earth will excite the wilfully blind to open their eyes, and

acknowledge, with sorrow, that the divine oracles have been by them, much to their own prejudice, either neglected or derided.

The explanation given in this work of the four beasts and the twenty-four elders, does not entirely coincide with our ideas. The author imagines that the former are introduced merely to add splendor to the scene, and that they allude to the pomp of the oriental courts: the latter are supposed to represent the twelve apostles of the primitive, and as many future apostles of the renovated church. The opening of the seals is well explained by the events in the Roman empire; and, in general, good reasons are given for adopting or rejecting the interpretation of preceding writers. In this part we were happy to see that a good use has been made of Gibbon's Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire; and, in this manner, we doubt not that this supposed formidable adversary to the Christian religion will eventually contribute to the overthrow of infidelity.

The number 666 has been a bone of contention to critics and commentators. Various methods of investigating it have been pursued, but hitherto with little success. Our author's plan is ingenious; but we cannot reconcile ourselves to the subtilty of the division of the number, and the multiplication of other numbers to make up the parts of this division. As Babylon is the name by which the anti-christian church is prefigured to us, it is presumed that a clue will be found, in the image erected near it, to discover the meaning of the mystical number in the Revelations.

"Now, in surveying the history of that ancient state, the image on the plains of Dura, spoken of by Daniel the prophet, seizes our attention as probably much to our purpose. It was 60 cubits high, and 6 cubits broad. It was made of gold. All nations were commanded to fall down and worship it. And, if any person refused, he was to be cast into the middle of a burning furnace. Here was a superstition, great and magnificent: It was enforced likewise by a tyranny, severe and unfeeling; and it was attended with a blasphemy most audacious and shocking: For who is that God, said Nebuchadnezzar, that shall deliver you out of my hands? What a striking emblem is this of the leading characters of the papal beast. Let us blend, or incorporate it with his monstrous figure, as it is described at the beginning of this chapter, and we shall see the number come out exactly as the apostle has stated it. Nothing can be more natural and simple than this operation. In multiplying the height of this image by the ten horns of the beast, we have the number 600: and in multiplying the breadth of the image, by the ten horns, and by the last head of the beast, the only one which denotes antichrist, that is to say,

in multiplying the breadth by 11, we have the number 66; the two together amounting to 666, the very number that is here put down. By this eafy operation, we fee the fpirit of ancient Babylon transfufed, with increafed energy, into her monftrous antitype. By the firft multiplication, we perceive that the fuperftition of myftical Babylon fhould be of a far more gigantic fize than that of ancient Babylon, even as ten is greater than one; and by the fecond multiplication, we learn that this enormous fuperftition, together with the tyranny with which it was continued, and by which it was fupported, was to extend, in one great body, over all the kingdoms which belonged to the beaft; and was to be entirely under the management of antichrift as the governing head, which carried blafphemy upon it, as its very name. Here then we have a folution of this very difficult queftion, which, while it gives us the exact number of the beaft which the apoftle puts down, exhibits a moft ftriking picture of antichrift in all his diftinguifhing features. It fhews that the fpirit of God does not deal in cabaliftical conceits about names, and words, and letters, and the fecret powers of numbers, according to the interpretations which have been commonly given; but that, while we have the number entire by which the beaft is denoted, we have it connected with a fet of characters, which are not only applicable to him in the cleareft manner, but which diftinguifh him from every other power which has appeared in the world.' P. 458.

The great earthquake, in which the tenth part of the city fell, does not, according to our author, refer immediately to the French revolution, which he finds in the phial poured out by the fifth angel on the feat of the beaft. As this fubject is deeply impreffed on all thinking minds, we fhall give the interpretation of this phial in the words of Dr. Snodgrafs.

'By the feat of the beaft, upon which this phial was poured out, we are to underftand his authority and dominion; a feat, or throne, being the emblem of fixed authority, and of fettled empire. The very foundations then, of antichrift's dominion, were to be fhaken by the pouring out of this phial. The confequence was, that his kingdom was filled with darknefs, a deep and melancholy gloom pervaded the minds of his fubjects. Their anxiety was fo great, that it is expreffed by one of the ftrongeft natural fymptoms, as if they gnawed their very tongues for pain; yet, the fure evidence of approaching ruin, they repented not of their deeds, but, in the midft of their pains and of their fores, they blafphemed the God of heaven, not only by perfifting in the folemn mockery of their fuperftition, after all the judgements they had fuffered, but by calling in religion itfelf, to juftify the violation of the firft principles of nature, in fupport of that fyftem of tyranny, which had fo long been exercifed over both the bodies and minds of men.

'The pouring out of this phial feems at this time to be receiving

its accompliſhment, is one of the moſt extraordinary political events, that perhaps the hiſtory of the world affords, the fall of an oppreſſive and arbitrary monarchy in France, and the eſtabliſhment of a different form of government in its room.

'No where did ſuch a revolution ſeem more improbable; for no where did deſpotiſm ſeem more firmly eſtabliſhed, no where was it formed into a more perfect ſyſtem. A powerful nobility, an intereſted clergy, and a numerous army, concurred to ſupport the throne. The cauſes that wrought its overthrow were various. One of the moſt obvious and moſt immediate, was, the deſire of depreſſing a rival nation, and, with that view, forming an alliance with her colonies againſt her. In order to render this interference popular, arguments, juſtifying the cauſe of the ſubject againſt the ſovereign, were induſtriouſly circulated throughout the kingdom. Men eagerly read, they thought, and entered warmly into the ſubject. With deep intereſt they contemplated the example of a ſet of feeble colonies, ſcattered upon a diſtant and wide extended ſhore, combating the efforts of one of the moſt powerful governments on earth. They were taught to rejoice in their ſucceſs. But the exertions on the part of France which contributed to that ſucceſs completed the derangement of her finances, and called for an enormous increaſe of the national burthens. Recourſe was had to a remedy, plauſible, but dangerous to the monarchy. The States General were called together. They met, full of the ſpirit which many writers had long been endeavouring to diffuſe, which the court itſelf had unintentionally cheriſhed. They completely overturned the antient government; if it may not, with more propriety, be ſaid to have been overturned by the ſpirit of a people living three thouſand miles diſtant. Thus, by a ſingular combination of circumſtances, that Sun of the antichriſtian world, which we have ſeen under the former vial, for more than a century, ſcorching men with the intenſeneſs of his heat, and ſpreading devaſtation all around him, was extinguiſhed in the billows of the Atlantic ocean.

'This is an event ſo ſtrongly ſtamped with the hand of Providence, that a contemplative and ſerious mind cannot but regard it as of a very prognoſticating import. It is not to our purpoſe here, to examine the principles of government which the founders of the new republic have laid down. The influence of theſe principles has already ſpread to a conſiderable extent, and has occaſioned a high degree of anxiety and alarm. The meaſures which have been adopted with reſpect to religion, pointed perhaps at the deſtruction of Chriſtianity itſelf, have greatly alarmed many ſerious minds. But let the Chriſtian diſmiſs his fears: Chriſtianity requires not to be ſupported by carnal weapons and the arm of fleſh. All ſhe aſks is liberty to publiſh her doctrines, and diſpenſe her ordinances; and this, notwithſtanding their enmity againſt her, their own principles have conſtrained the French

rulers to afford. Not genuine Christianity and pure religion, but the fabric of superstition, must fall, when deprived of the props of wealth and power. Never therefore was there an event more threatening to the dominion of antichrist than this: no wonder then that his kingdom should be full of darkness, that perturbation and horror should overspread his realms. But have they repented of their wickedness in consequence of the judgements of God thus visibly falling upon them? Are they not as mad in their idolatry and superstition as before? And do not the supporters of idolatry and superstition grossly blaspheme the name of the Most High, when they call it the cause of religion, and the cause of God?' p. 513.

From these extracts the general character of the work may be discovered. A considerable knowledge of history, and the soundest piety, are manifest throughout it. Conjectures are not hazarded without deep reflection; and, if they are not satisfactory, the intricacy of the subject is a sufficient excuse for the author. We lament that the work was left incomplete; but, as it is, we recommend it to all who are desirous of investigating scriptural prophecies.

Essay on the Causes, early Signs, and Prevention of Pulmonary Consumption, for the Use of Parents and Preceptors. By Thomas Beddoes, M. D. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman *and* Rees. 1799.

THIS volume, kind and benevolent in its design, is not without merit as a faithful collection of facts, some of which lead to rational views in the prevention of consumption. We cannot, however, extend our praise to the whole, as some parts are doubtful, and others exceptionable, sometimes from the colouring of prejudice.

We want not the highly coloured picture of the miseries of the unfortunate patient affected with the phthisis, to induce us to hasten to his relief, or to regret our inability of assisting him; and this display of distress must open the wounds, which affection has received in the loss of a dear relative. It is no excuse for the stab, that it is inflicted by a nicely sharpened and polished instrument. When the author comes nearer to the principal subject, we agree with him. Consumption is not infrequent at Lisbon, in Madeira, and in Italy; nor is it probable that a climate which cannot preserve those to whom it is natural, should cure invalids of a distant country. We believe, with Dr. Beddoes, that the benefit, if any, is derived from the voyage.

Butchers are by no means subject to consumption; but it

does not follow that this exemption is occaſioned by their breathing hydrocarbonate. Their wives and their children, who often live at a diſtance from the ſlaughter-houſes, are equally free from the diſorder. Sailors are ſaid not to be ſubject to phthiſis; but this is probably a miſtake: at leaſt, from extenſive obſervation, we have found reaſon to heſitate on this point. Men-ſervants, gardeners, and the cultivators of ſmall farms, are, ſo far as our remarks have extended, more liable to phthiſis.

The trades which bring on or prediſpoſe to conſumption, are ſuch as require a ſedentary life and cloſe rooms. Stone-cutters, needle-grinders, caſters of fine braſs-work, are ſaid to be very liable to the diſeaſe. We think, that cork-cutters may be added. Playing on wind-inſtruments is known to be injurious. Cows, apes, and monkeys, are ſuppoſed to become occaſionally conſumptive, particularly the laſt. We will add the latter part of Mr. Carliſle's valuable communication on this ſubject in his own words.

'I think my experience in the obſervance of diſeaſes, authorizes me to conclude, that few perſons afflicted with ſcrophulous affections of the ſuperficial lymphatic glands of the large joints or bones (when ſcrophula attacks theſe parts early in life), are liable to conſumption of the lungs.—This may be contrary to your experience; but I have been often diſappointed with finding the lungs ſound when ſcrophula had ravaged the whole ſet of ſuperficial lymphatic glands, and all the ſpongy bones which are remote from the heart. I think I have alſo obſerved two diſtinct ſpecies of diſeaſe in the lungs of conſumptive perſons; the one ſpreading through the whole ſubſtance of the lungs, the other confined to the lymphatic glands at their root. The former patients have more cough, pain, and ſhortneſs of breathing, ſo that the diſeaſe is ſoon underſtood, the latter have the diſeaſe proceeding inſidiouſly, with little pain, difficulty of breathing principally obſerved after exerciſe: the termination of this laſt ſpecies is alſo remarkable. It either carries the patient off by a violent and ſudden expectoration and hectic, or the matter is diſcharged, the ſore heals, and the diſeaſe ſeems, although unexpectedly, to have diſappeared. But perhaps I am telling what is told in every pamphlet on this ſubject, as I have no leiſure for ſuch reading, and more obſervations on this point may be on that account uſeleſs. Again—It has not occurred in my practice to ſee any good effects from medicinal applications to ſcrophulous ſores: keeping the parts in a warm and equable temperature, and exciting an increaſed action of the blood-veſſels in the ſkin of the adjoining parts, are the only methods which I have obſerved to produce any improvement in the ſores. Sometimes ſcrophulous inflammations are rendered leſs active by inducing more powerful inflammations in their vicinity. This diſeaſe appears to my mind,

in its origin, connected with a diminution of the animal heat, either of the whole body, or parts of it. There is a debility in the powers which circulate the blood; there is a defect in the reciprocal duties of the arterial and absorbent systems; coagulated lymph is deposited in weak parts, where it is neither perfectly organised by arteries and veins, nor modelled in its form and quantity by the absorbents; in this state it remains out of the reach of the actions of the living body, and undergoes the same sort of change as coagulated lymph is known to do, when retained for a length of time in circumscribed living cavities.' P. 70.

The Dutch, who seldom approach a large fire, and who cover themselves with very warm clothing, are rarely consumptive. In Scotland, while the ancient woollen garments were worn, the disease was little known.

Among the preventives, are warm dress, animal food, free air, regular exercise, and an uniform moderate temperature. The connexion between scrofula, catarrh, and consumption, is well known; and Dr. Beddoes has not greatly added to our former knowledge of this subject; but some parts of the disquisition, particularly those which relate to the strength and manners of our ancestors, are amusing and interesting.

The external appearances which show a consumptive habit are well described by our author. Among the means of preventing the disorder, he mentions the tepid bath. We have reason to think that he places the degree of heat, at which the pulse is rendered slower by that bath, too high. At least, if the heat below 96° diminishes the frequency of the pulse, it must be in cases where it has been previously raised by a febrile stimulus.

'He draws the following general inferences.—1. Every bath below 96° diminishes the quickness of the pulse, when no particular circumstance occurs to prevent this effect. 2. The greater the frequency of the pulse beyond its natural rate, the more it is diminished by the bath. It must, however, be observed, that in several of the preceding cases, the entire diminution cannot, by any means, be referred to the bathing. The pulse had sometimes been raised by motion, fear, or spasms, and would, of itself, after some time, have subsided. The temperature which seems to have the greatest power of reducing the pulse, is that between 96° and 84° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. This the author terms warm, or tepid—(*warm oder lauwarm*). And he uses the term seems, because he has few accurate observations on cool and cold baths. He never continued the cool so long as the tepid bath, and therefore cannot say what they would have done in the space of an hour.

'On the change produced upon the respiration by bathing, this diligent observer makes several pertinent remarks. The effect is more difficult to be determined than in the case of the pulse. In

general, he says, after some time, the breath grows slower. But in unaccustomed, and nervous people, it is long before the quickness, immediately subsequent to immersion, and occasioned by the pressure of the water, is over. And even when the breath is very slow, a somewhat greater effort may be observed during the inspiration, and a sudden impulse at the end of the expiration. "I have (he concludes) too often noticed the slowness of respiration in the tepid bath, to entertain the slightest doubt of the fact, though I have not ascertained the degree by a stop-watch. When a general calm is produced, it is natural that the function of respiration should participate in it; besides, the breath must be slower, because the pulse is retarded. That in persons who go with dread into the bath, the breath will be quickened, as long as this state of mind continues, it is easy to foresee."

'In circumstances of great debility—towards the end of low fever, for example—other recent observers, as Dr. Brandis (*Journal der Erfindungen*, v. xiii. 1794) assert from experience the benefit of tepid immersion, and particularly the reduction of the pulse as much as 16 or 20 beats in a minute.' P. 214.

The directions for regulating the warmth of the bed are highly proper. The cautions respecting cold bathing are equally so; for, though the writer of this article has, in his own case, acted in a manner diametrically opposite to the directions of Dr. Beddoes, with perfect success, he is ready to allow that the attempt is reprehensible. The regulation of cold regimen, and of the *cool* bath, should be mentioned with respect.

On the cure of consumption little can be added. In *this* work, Dr. Beddoes does not seem sanguine in his expectations of the success of factitious airs. He concludes with a short account of the success of the fox-glove in hectic fever, in the hands of the doctors Darwin, Drake, and Fowler.

The History of the Union of Scotland and England. Stating the Circumstances which brought that Event forward to a Conclusion, and the Advantages resulting from it to the Scots. By the Rev. Ebenezer Marshal, Cockpen. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Longman *and* Rees. 1799.

ALL the advantages of national independence, we think, must be sought in three particulars—protection, the production of intellectual and moral character, and commerce, or the extended accommodations which foreign intercourse procures to a nation. Where these advantages may be enjoyed *without* national independence, in our judgement it may be safely resigned; and, where it has been resigned, it is vain and unprofitable to contend for its re-establishment. The

dissolution of the Saxon Heptarchy, and the establishment of one national government in England, appear to have been warranted by every consideration which we have suggested. The case of Scotland uniting itself to England, it is the business of this author to examine. In the first particular, *protection*, it must be allowed, that Scotland lost nothing by the Union; for tranquillity, internal and external, has been more her lot since than it was before the Union. In the last particular, *commerce*, our author contends that she has been benefited beyond calculation; to this conclusion, however, we cannot readily assent. It is in vain, on this subject, to contrast the state of Scotland at the present moment with the state in which she was immediately before the Union. The general character of European nations, with regard to commerce, has so greatly changed in that time, that, with equal fairness, it might be inferred that the commerce of England has been wholly indebted for its increase to its union with Scotland, as that Scotland has, in this particular, been engrafted upon England, unless it can be shown, that since the Union the commerce of Scotland has increased more than that of England. It certainly was not necessary to extinguish the independence of Scotland to open a commercial intercourse with England; and, it may be asked, has the British government, acting for Scotland, given that country any exclusive advantages, which she could not have enjoyed and secured to herself? In this particular, therefore, we doubt the conclusions of our author, and think that he often errs in the argument by alleging, *pro causâ*, what is *non causa*. As to the second particular, the formation of intellectual and moral character, will any one question say, that in this particular Scotland has been improved by the Union? Where are now her Buchanans, her Fletchers, her Wallaces? She indeed can boast of her Wedderburnes and her Dundases; and some may think that these excel her ancient worthies. There is a wonderful power in a national government for the production of energy and worth of character. The small states of Greece produced the most illustrious characters that the world ever saw, and their legislators, their generals, their orators, yea, even their poets and philosophers, were *created* by the division of their governments, and the independence of their numerous little states. Greece, as one state, might have produced many great men, but *could not* have produced *so many*, pre-eminent in every walk of excellence, as were produced by her numerous states. With no bias upon our minds have we examined this history, and must confess that it appears to us to be a party production, having little claim to respect from superior exactness of research, and still less from superior elegance of style, above De Foe's work on the subject, which is represented by our

author as a defective and inelegant performance. That our readers may judge for themselves, we transcribe one of the most favourable specimens which the work affords, both for style and information.

'At last a happier æra hath arrived. A brighter sun has now broken forth upon the nation; and, under its cherishing influence, the improvements of the kingdom advance with a rapidity, and with a vigour, that is astonishing. The hand of industry is, in every place, adding something to the beauty and to the value of the country, and an encreased wealth is adding to the comforts and the conveniences of all conditions. Manufactures have multiplied, and trade, become more extensive, flourishes under a burthen of taxes which our forefathers could not have borne. The linen manufacture, which has long flourished in Scotland, in the year 1728, amounted to the value of 103,312l. 9s. 3d. In the year 1759, the linen trade of the nation had encreased to the value of 451,390l. 17s. 3d. In the year 1776, so rapid had its encrease been, and so great its extent, that the linen, stamped for the market, was equal in value to 710,633l. 8s. 8½d. The silk and linen manufactures of Paisley, have risen into great reputation, and furnish a dress of elegance and ornament to persons of the highest rank. At the period of the Union, the weavers, of all denominations, who were here employed, did not amount to more than sixty. Their number in the year 1757 had encreased to 1400. From that period, the manufactures of the place have continued to flourish exceedingly. The town is now enlarged much beyond its former bounds, and a great addition is made to the number of its industrious inhabitants. In the year 1773, no less than 12,175 industrious manufacturers were employed here in the silk and linen trade, and no less than 2232 looms. The value of their produce was estimated at 242,500l.

'But nothing can unfold more certainly the flourishing condition into which the trade of the nation has now risen, than the encreased number of ships which are employed by the merchants of Leith, which may be considered as the harbour of the capital, and which, before the Union, was the great mart of the Scottish commerce. Glasgow, which has now become so opulent, and which has extended its commercial intercourse to a great part of Europe and to the western world, had then but little connection with foreign nations. The small degree of intercourse which it then maintained with America, was carried on by the port of Whitehaven in Cumberland, as the Scots were shut out from a direct commerce with the colonies by the Navigation Act. The whole ships which belonged to the harbour of Leith in the year 1692, were only 29, capable of containing 1702 tons. In the year 1740, the shipping here amounted to 2628 tons. After the Rebellion of 1745, the trade of Leith began to flourish with fresh

vigour. The ſhips which belonged to this harbour in the year 1752, were 68 in number; they were navigated by 621 men, and carried 6935 tons of burthen. In the year 1778, the ſhips employed in the trade of Leith were 96; they were navigated by 709 men, and contained 10,146 tons. The preſent encreaſed and growing ſtate of the Scottiſh commerce, appears from the number of ſhips which entered the harbour of Leith from January 1796 to January 1797. They were no leſs than 2076. A conſiderable part of the Leith trade conſiſts in the importation of goods from London for the Scottiſh market. For a certain period before the Union, the goods imported annually from England into Scotland, were in value equal to 65,355l. The value of Engliſh goods imported to this country, is now ſaid to amount to 2,000,000l. annually; a ſum double to the whole ſpecie of the kingdom at the Union.' P. 228.

Carmen Seculare for the Year 1800. *By Henry James Pye, P. L.* 4*to.* 3*s.* 6*d. ſewed.* Wright. 1800.

THE annual odes of a poet laureat are not the individual ſubjects of public criticiſm; they are ſecured by their brevity and their inſignificance. Condemned to extract praiſe from the events of the paſt year, whether glorious or diſgraceful, the poet more deſerves to be pitied for labouring at ſuch taſk-work, than to be cenſured if it ſhould be poorly performed. We cannot expect him to build the everlaſting marble monument, when his materials are only brick and mortar. He is to raiſe in his hot-bed an annual flower, not to await the ſlow growth of the evergreen laurel. But the Carmen Seculare, like the phœnix, appears once only in a century; and we muſt be allowed to examine the rarity.

The ode thus begins.

I.

' Inceſſant down the ſtream of Time
And days, and years, and ages, roll,
Speeding through Error's iron clime
To dark Oblivion's goal;
Loſt in the gulf of night profound,
No eye to mark their ſhadowy bound,
Unleſs the deed of high renown,
The warlike chief's illuſtrious crown,
Shed o'er the darkling void a dubious fame,
And gild the paſſing hour with ſome immortal name.' P. 9.

The ſtream of time! every ſchool-boy poet floats his firſt paper-boat upon the ſtream of time. The ſecond line is not wholly Engliſh; it contains an awkward Latiniſm, a redundant word introduced for the ſake of cadence. 'Next to the meaſure

of the language,' says Dr. Darwin, 'the principal distinction between poetry and prose appears to me to consist in this; that poetry admits of but few words expressive of very abstracted ideas, whereas prose abounds with them; and, as our ideas derived from visible objects are more distinct than those derived from the objects of our other senses, the words expressive of these ideas belonging to vision make up the principal part of poetic language: that is, the poet writes principally to the eye, the prose-writer uses more abstracted terms.' Has the poet laureat in this stanza written to the eye? A blind man might, perhaps, answer in the affirmative, and believe that *a dubious fame shed over a darkling void, a passing hour gilded with an immortal name*, may represent visual objects, because they are beyond his comprehension.

II.

'Yet, evanescent as the fleeting cloud,
Driven by the wild winds o'er the varying skies,
Are all the glories of the great and proud,
On Rumour's idle breath that faintly rise.
A thousand garbs their forms assume,
Woven in vain Conjecture's loom;
Their dyes a thousand hues display,
Sporting in Fancy's fairy ray;
Changing with each uncertain blast,
Till melting from the eyes at last,
The shadowy vapours fly before the wind,
Sink into viewless air, "nor leave a rack behind."

III.

'But if the raptur'd train whom Heaven inspires
Of glory to record each deathless meed,
Tune to heroic worth their golden lyres,
And give to memory each godlike deed,
Then shall the eternal guerdon wait
The actions of the wise and great;—
While as from black Oblivion's sway
They bear the mighty name away,
And waft it, borne on pinion high,
With joyful carol to the sky,
Sage History, with eye severe,
Tracing aloft their bold career,
Clears the rich tale from Fiction's specious grace,
And builds her sacred lore on Truth's eternal base.

IV.

'Hence from the splendid tales of old,
That Græcia's mystic story told,
From all that copious Fancy sings
Of fabled demi-gods and kings,

The godlike bard with master hand
Sublime his epic wonder plann'd;
And while fair Fiction's richest dyes
Still fascinate the gazing eyes,
Such precious gems, from Truth's refulgent mine,
Amid the bright materials shine,
That as her cares the gorgeous mass explore,
The Muse of History stamps the poet's sterling ore.' P. 10.

The four first stanzas amount to this: 1. Ages pass away, and are only remembered for the illustrious deeds wrought during their course: 2. Some glories are transient: 3. Some actions are preserved, first by poetry, afterwards by history: 4. The historian of early Greece seeks materials in Homer. This is a long text! and one of those which will suit any sermon. We must proceed patiently, and we shall soon arrive at the beginning of the century.

In perusing the fifth stanza, we feel the want of an explanatory note; for we do not understand the allusion. If 'the royal maid and elfin knight' be the Una and St. George of Spenser, what business have they here? What connexion have they with what precedes or with what follows? If any other characters are meant, with what propriety can the epithet *elfin* be used?

Though the lamp of the Muses be represented as fading before the 'blaze of Truth's meridian ray,' still (it is added in the next stanza) their votive fingers twine the wreath for the sons of Virtue, in aid of History.

VII.

'Lo, bursting from its scanty source,
Flows through the lowly mead the rippling stream,
No harvests in its waters gleam,
No swelling canvass marks its course:
But as it winds amid the hills,
A thousand congregated rills
Pour in its bed from every side,
And swell the undulating tide,
Till the charm'd eye the expanding deep explores,
While Commerce loads its wave, and Plenty crowns its shores.

VIII.

'So through the silent lapse of time,
By Glory's ceaseless currents fed,
Has Britain's power increasing spread,
And roll'd its plenteous waves to every clime.
Mightier in each succeeding age,
She lives through Fame's recording page;

From her ſcyth'd cars that wide deſtruction hurl'd
On the proud maſter of a ſubject world,
To her bold fleets that o'er the azure main,
Teach Earth's remoteſt ſhores to bleſs her George's reign.

IX.

' As the wing'd hours, in endleſs flight,
Urge on their deſtin'd way,
Fond Hope anticipates a happier day,
While opening ages crowd upon her ſight.
Yet ſtill a lingering look is caſt
On deeds of ancient glory paſt.—
Hence dwells the Muſe, with partial eye,
On years of creſted chivalry—
On England's ſons by Egbert join'd;
On Alfred's comprehenſive mind,
Who chaſed Invaſion from her coaſt,
Who boaſted yet a prouder boaſt,
To drive Oppreſſion from her land
By laws which patriot wiſdom plann'd;
On Edward's and on Henry's fame,
Mark'd in charactery of Gallic ſhame;
On the bold warriors of the royal maid
Who high the Britiſh trident firſt diſplay'd.—
Hide Britain! hide a guilty age,
Blood-ſtain'd by wild Sedition's rage,
And on a happier era gaze—
Era of Albion's brighter days,
Now in the blaze of heavenly light that dies,
Sure from its phœnix neſt a form as bright ſhall riſe.'

P. 14.

This is a new beginning, and the long paſſage through which we have wandered ' leads to nothing.' Now, however, we ſhall ſail down the ſtream with fewer interruptions. The century commences in the next ſtanza; queen Anne, admiral Ruſſel, the duke of Marlborough, and the houſe of Hanover, make their appearance,

' The dauntleſs heroes of the Brunſwick line,
Kings of Britannia's choice, true heirs of right divine.'

P. 18.

True heirs of right divine, certainly make the line *rhyme* well. The victories of Ramillies and Oudenarde, and the union, are the ſubjects of exultation. The rebellion, and the wars of George the Second, follow.

XV.

'Why clouds the ſky? why ſwells the gathering ſtorm
O'er the ſoft breezes blown from Zephyr's breath?
'Tis he, the fiend!—I ſee his ghaſtly form—
See the terrific arm of death.
High, high he rears his iron dart,
To rive the venerable monarch's heart.
Short triumph!—Glory's amaranthine flowers
Shed heavenly fragrance o'er his parting hours.
Though the funereal cypreſs ſhade his bier,
Victoria twines her votive laurels there,
Soothes with her voice his placid breaſt,
And wafts his ſpirit to the realms of reſt—
While godlike to his grandſire's throne,
Britannia ſees her native prince ariſe,
Pours the loud pæan to the ſkies,
Hailing with fond acclaim a monarch all her own.' P. 23.

It is always with pleaſure that we pay the tribute of praiſe. We ſhould have been better pleaſed with the *Engliſh* word Victory than *Victoria*. We ſhould have preferred any epithet to *godlike*. Hyperbolical panegyric is always ridiculous; and, if the epithet were not common-place, it would be blaſphemous. But theſe are trite faults. This ſtanza is good, and its concluſion forcible and fortunate.

The death of general Wolfe is now mentioned; and the progreſs of painting and of ſculpture during the preſent reign, the aſtronomical labours of Herſchel, and the diſcoveries in the South-Seas, are ſucceſſively noticed.

XX.

'Proud o'er the heaving ſurges of the deep,
See the tall ſhip in ſtate majeſtic ride!
Wide ſpread her ſwelling ſails in ample ſweep,
Dread roars the thunder from her lofty ſide;
Awful ſhe looms, the terror of the main,
And billows rage, and tempeſts howl in vain—
Yet in the planks unheeded, day by day,
Works the inſidious worm his ſubtle way:
The puny malice of an inſect train
Deſtroys what mountain waves, and winds, aſſail in vain.

XXI.

'Fell Sedition's rancorous race,
Treachery, with ſerpent eye,
Sophiſtry, whoſe guileful tongue
Pleads the ſpecious cauſe of wrong,
Envy, with her Gorgon face,
And ſmooth Hypocriſy,

These dire fiends united bore
Their poison to the Atlantic shore;
All, with silent hate impress'd,
The offspring lur'd from the fond mother's breast.—
Betray'd—deceiv'd—the thoughtless brood,
Rear'd, like the pelican, with parent blood,
Turn their wild vengeance 'gainst Britannia's heart,
And aim, with fatal rage, the parricidal dart.' P. 29.

Thus is the American revolution falsely described! Surely the violence of party ought by this time to have ceased; and even a poet laureat might have been excused from offering this gross and offensive flattery to his country.

Ten stanzas follow upon the present war. The deliverance of Holland in 1793, the battle of Lincelles, and the capture of Valenciennes, are adduced as causes of triumph, though their consequences are only felt by the widows and orphans who remember them in their anguish! In the parts relative to Egypt, Mr. Pye chooses to triumph by land as well as by sea. Has he forgotten the old fable, that no *puffing* could swell the frog to the size of the ox? After a stanza, celebrating the deliverance of Rome by British valour, the ode thus concludes.

XXXIII.

' Sire of the winter drear,
Who lead'st the months in circling dance along,
May Peace and Concord claim the votive song,
That chants the glories of the rising year;
For Albion longs around her generous brow
To bind the olive's sober bough,
Though unappall'd her laurel'd front defies
The fiery blast that flashes through the skies.—
Wooing, O Peace! thy halcyon ray,
Ready she stands for war, nor shuns the ensanguin'd fray;
But on Ierne's kindred sky
She casts Affection's fondest eye.
O! as the era past saw Anna join
Each warrior nation of Britannia's line,
So may the auspicious hours that now ascend,
The sister isles in ceaseless union blend—
While Ocean's guardian arms around them thrown,
Form to their coasts an adamantine zone;
There, proudly rising o'er the circling main,
Lord of the waves, their patriot king shall reign;
And fam'd through every clime, from pole to pole,
Long as the unfailing stream of Time shall roll,
Religion, Virtue, Glory, shall adorn
The illustrious age of George, the Monarch Briton born!'

P. 42.

The events of the *last* century (for Mr. Pye absurdly argues that the *new* one has commenced) furnish ample matter for the poet. A wide field lay before him; he might have woven his garland of the best materials; and if he has selected weeds only, or perishable flowers, the fault is entirely his own. How would a man of genius have written upon this subject? Assuredly he would have exulted in the advancement of science, and have prophesied with joy and certainty the future progress of his species. He would have sung of the laws of nature, ascertained by Newton; the human mind, analysed by Hartley; the lightning snatched from heaven by Franklin—names unnoticed by the poet laureat! Astronomy, indeed, he has alluded to—and wherefore?—because it gave him an opportunity of mentioning the Georgium Sidus. He has produced a miserable ode. It has attracted our notice like the flower of the aloe, not for its beauty, but because it blossoms once only in a century.

General View of the Agriculture of the County of Nottingham, with Observations on the Means of its Improvement. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and Internal Improvement. By Robert Lowe, Esq. of Oxton. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Nicol.

THIS is one part of the series, resulting from the able and well-directed surveys of the Board of Agriculture; and it is executed with great judgement, on a comprehensive plan. Nottinghamshire does not present many objects of importance; but Mr. Lowe has comprised the description of the county, and its peculiar practices, in so clear a narrative, as to render it more pleasing than many more important "Views."

As it is bounded on the east and west by Lincolnshire and Derbyshire, the adjoining districts must partake of the different nature of those counties. The chief division is made by the river Trent; which, passing from the south-west to the north-east, divides Nottinghamshire into two unequal portions of varying natures. The climate is good, and the air dry. The country is hilly, though the hills are low, when compared with those of Derbyshire; the land, particularly in the neighbourhood of the Trent, is fertile. Besides more common articles, it produces wood, hops, and liquorice. The coal district is in the western part of the shire.

In the account of property and buildings there are no very important observations, if we except Mr. Chambers' method of laying barn floors.

"Sir, About twenty years ago I laid a barn floor with oak beams, fourteen inches ſquare, and three inch oak plank, the plank was fourteen inches hollow from the ground, and the beams about two feet aſunder; in two years after, ſome part of the plank broke down, without any other uſe than common threſhing upon; I examined the reaſon, and found the under ſide of the plank decayed by the damp rot, nearly through; upon which I had the floor taken up, and found all the planks in the ſame ſituation, and the beams almoſt totally periſhed; upon which I conſulted a very experienced architect, who adviſed me to lay the next floor ſtill higher than the former, and if poſſible to admit a circulation of air under the ſame, as the ſituation of the barn muſt be very ſubject to the damp rot. I relaid the floor with new beams and plank of the ſame thickneſs as the former; the beams were fixed upon brick pillars, fourteen inches high, ſo that the floor lay twenty-eight inches hollow; and under each door-ſill [*were*] two grates, about one foot ſquare each, that gave a current of air under the floor through the barn, and by the beams being laid upon ſupporters of brick, the whole floor was hollow except the nine inch pillars.

"The current of air was not through the middle of the floor, as the doors were more on one ſide than the other. In about two years the planks that were fartheſt from the paſſage of air fell down, all reduced to rotten wood, but about $\frac{3}{8}$ of an inch at the upper ſide; upon taking up the floor, I found the beams nearly reduced to rotten wood, except thoſe that lay near the current of air, which were very ſound, as was alſo the plank that lay over them in that ſituation.

"After theſe trials in the uſual way of laying barn floors, I determined upon the following experiment:—to lay the next floor ſolid, in lime and ſand mortar; upon which I removed every part of the former materials, and fixed freſh beams upon a ſpreading of mortar, at about ſix feet aſunder, ſo as to ſuit the piecing of the planks to pin to; between each beam I filled the ſpace with ſtones and thin mortar, that the whole was made ſolid with the upper ſides of the beams; when this preparation was ſufficiently dry, I culled the beſt of the remaining planks from each of the former floors, and before the workmen laid down each plank, the ſpace that I covered was ſpread with fine mortar, even upon the beams; then the plank was laid down and pinned; ſo that every hollow part, either in the beams, or decayed parts in the planks, was filled ſolid with mortar. The floor has now laid [*lain*] about ſixteen years without any amendment, except one of the planks being ſo weak in ſound wood, that it ſtarted from the pins a year ago; after taking the ſame up, and examining the underſide, I found ſuch of the plank that was ſound when laſt laid down, was ſtill perfectly ſo, and the rotten part was firmer and ſtronger than when laid down." P. 10.

"Implements of Huſbandry," and ſeveral other heads, offer no particular ſubject of remark. We are ſorry to find, in the new incloſures, a neglect of planting in the hedge-rows. The huſbandry of Nottinghamſhire does not diſplay any ſtriking marks of ſkill or enterpriſe. The Roota Biga (Swediſh turnep) has been found to be excellent food for the horſes, with hay only. The improvements on Clumber Park, and the rotation of crops, we will ſelect.

'Amongſt theſe deſerves to be named, in the firſt place, Clumber Park, belonging to his Grace the Duke of Newcaſtle, between ten and eleven miles round, and containing in the whole about 4000 acres, which may be ſaid to be a new creation within theſe thirty years: at which time it was a black heath full of rabbits, having a narrow river running through it, with a ſmall boggy cloſe or two. But now, beſides a magnificent manſion, and noble lake and river, with extenſive plantations, above 2000 acres are brought into a regular and excellent courſe of tillage: maintaining at the ſame time between three and four thouſand ſheep, and are all in his Grace's own occupation.

'The following courſes and practices of huſbandry, uſed in Clumber Park, were communicated to me by Mr. Birket, his Grace's farmer, a very active and intelligent perſon.

'On the beſt Land.—Firſt year, turnips; ſecond, barley; third, clover; fourth, wheat; fifth, turnips; ſixth, barley; ſeventh, ſeeds; which lie from five to ſix years.

'On bad Land.—Firſt, turnips; ſecond, oats, with ſeeds which lie as before. The whins are ſtubbed conſtantly, to hinder his being obliged to break up ſooner. He keeps a year's ſtock of dung before hand, and lays it on for turnips in autumn, ploughing directly. He harrows and gets out the twitch, (called in ſome countries couch-graſs) as uſual, in the ſpring. He lays two chalders, or eight quarters of lime an acre for turnips, but never after in that courſe.' P. 22.

Mr. Neville's ſpirited improvement of the low-flooded moors, bordering on Lincolnſhire, deſerves to be praiſed. The account of the remains of the ancient foreſts is intereſting.

'In the foreſt diſtrict.—The principal remains of the ancient foreſt woods are, the Hays of Birkland and Bilhagh, being an open wood of large old oaks, moſt of them decaying, or ſtag headed, and without underwood, except ſome birch in one part; it extends about three miles in length, and one mile and a half in breadth. By a ſurvey taken for the crown, in 1790, there were found in both together, ten thouſand one hundred and ſeventeen trees, valued at 17,142l. The land on which they grow is one

thousand four hundred and eighty-seven acres, and is supposed would be worth, when cleared of wood and inclosed—Birkland, eight shillings, and Bilhagh, twelve shillings an acre.

'In a survey of 1609, were found 21,009 trees in Birkland, and 28,900 in Bilhagh: the trees in general were then past maturity. By a survey in 1686, there were 12,516 trees in Birkland, and 923 hollow and decayed ones. In Bilhagh 21,080, and 2797 hollow trees.

'By a survey in 1790, there were in Birkland and Bilhagh together, 10,117 trees, at that time estimated at 17,147l. 15s. 4d. In the year 1609, there were in Birkland and Bilhagh, 49,909 trees; so that in seventy-seven years, to 1686, had been cut down 12,593 trees.

'There are now and then opportunities of knowing the ages of oaks almost to a certainty. In cutting down some trees in Birkland, letters have been found cut or stamped in the body of the tree, marking the king's reign, several of which I have in my possession. One piece of wood marked J. R. (James Rex) was given me by the woodman who cut the tree down in the year 1786. He said that the letters appeared to be a little above a foot within the tree, and about one foot from the centre; so that this oak must have been near six feet in circumference when the letters were cut. A tree of that size is judged to be about one hundred and twenty years growth. If we suppose the letters to be cut about the middle of the reign of James the First, it is 172 years to the year 1786, which added to 120, makes the tree 229 years old when it was cut down. The woodman likewise says, that the tree was perfectly sound, and had not arrived to its highest perfection. It was about twelve feet in circumference. I have been told that J^n^. R. (John Rex) have been found cut in some of the oaks. One piece said to be marked with John Rex, and a crown, I have in my possession; but it is not sufficiently made out to be inserted here as a fact, though the person from whom I had it assures me, from his having seen others more perfect, that it is marked with Jo^n^ Rex. Others have had C. R. and several have been marked with W. M. (William and Mary) with a crown.' P. 51.

Mr. Marston's method of planting, as practised at Clumber, is judicious. It is followed by accounts of the plantations of the duke of Portland, extracted from Evelyn's Sylva; of Mr. Saville's woods and plantations; those of lord Newark, Mr. Foljambe, the duke of Norfolk, &c. We have, on the whole, a very interesting account of the flourishing state of timber trees in this county.

Among the improvements, draining forms an important object: much of the county is flooded; but the situation and

fall of the rivers offer considerable advantages in this necessary work.

The manures are chiefly lime, and other kinds are not easily procured. Dove manure, bone dust, especially when fresh, rape dust, clover ploughed in, malt combs, scrapings of oiled leather, bog earth, gypsum, whale blubber, soot, &c. are used with various success. With respect to paring and burning, opinions are divided. Burning greenswarth is, we believe, generally disapproved. The cultivation of willows, for poles, &c. seems to be an advantageous speculation.

The first number of the Appendix relates to the quantity of rain, which fell in different years at London, West-Bridgeford in Nottinghamshire, at Lancaster, and Kendal. The years observed were 1794, 1795, and 1796. From accounts in our own possession, we will add the quantity for 1797, and average the four years. The average quantity for London thus appears to be 21.43 inches; for West-Bridgeford, 24.07; for Lancaster, 49; and for Kendal, 50.77. It is evident, from this comparison, that the dryness of Nottinghamshire depends on the clouds, brought by the westerly winds from the Atlantic, being attracted by the mountains of Derbyshire and Westmoreland, and dropping their contents in these regions.

The other numbers of the Appendix contain such local information respecting Nottinghamshire, as would not be interesting to the general reader, or indeed to the agriculturist of other counties.

The Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy. Vol. VI. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards.* Elmsly *and* Bremner.

WITH some other works of merit, this volume has been unfortunately mislaid. We now take it up, in the hope that by increased attention we may in some degree atone to the respectable society, from whose labours we have derived so much information, for a neglect wholly unintentional.

The first article in the scientific department bears the title of 'Remarks on the Causes and Cure of some Diseases of Infancy. By Joseph Clarke, M.D. M.R.I.A.'

Dr. Clarke, in the first volume of the Irish Transactions, expressed some scepticism respecting the usual (supposed) causes of children's diseases, and particularly the existence of an acid in the stomachs of children, alleging that the stomach of an infant is not acid, that it will not coagulate milk, and that what has been styled the coagulum is in reality the cream. In our review of this paper we professed a similar scepticism

* For a review of Vol. V. see our XVIth Vol. New Arr. p. 246.

respecting the system of this physician. In the present article, he endeavours to show, that diarrhœa, accompanied with green and griping stools, is not occasioned by an acid; for, in one case, the green colour of the stools changed, after some time, to a perfect yellow; and absorbents do not, in general, remove the green colour, which, he thinks, is the consequence of an increased discharge, and an altered state of the biliary secretion. The fact adduced does not, in our opinion, assist either hypothesis: it is a solitary one. We have seen stools change from a yellow to a lemon colour, but never the contrary. We also know that absorbents have removed the griping, and restored the natural colour. But, though we think the principle not well founded, we can agree in the practice recommended for this complaint; viz. to give ½ a grain of calomel every night to children under six months; for, whatever may be the cause, these green discharges are highly acrid, and ought to be obviated. We know too that calomel, well prepared, is one of the safest and best purgatives for children. Their obstinate costiveness, Dr. Clarke thinks, is most successfully obviated by calomel; and the convulsions of early infancy are moderated, with the best success, by the same remedy. We are happy to find, that his plans have been so far successful, that the mortality is reduced from 17 to 4 in a hundred. In cutaneous diseases of the herpetic kind, proceeding from an accumulation of nutritious fluids, calomel is also useful. In the itch of children our author advises a wash of the watery infusion of brimstone, while the nurse employs the accustomed remedies.

'II. A Memoir on the Construction of Ships. By Sir George Shee, Bart. M. R. I. A.'

We are not satisfied with all the arguments of this writer, though some of his remarks are judicious. In the construction of merchant ships he recommends an augmentation of the horizontal and a reduction of the perpendicular dimensions. The length of the keel might even, he says, be increased, so that each extremity should touch a perpendicular line, dropped from the upper deck, and the sides, at least under the water level, should be flat, so as to resemble, in form and effect, a lee-board. These improvements would increase the velocity of sailing, without injuring the stowage, and would render ships more steady in tempestuous weather. So far in the scale as a frigate, he thinks, these changes may be safely adopted; but they would not, in his opinion, be suitable to larger ships of war.

'III. Memoir on the Climate of Ireland. By the Rev. William Hamilton, of Fanet, in the County of Donegal; late Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin, M. R. I. A. Corresponding Member of the Royal Society of Edinburgh,' &c.

This is a pleasing and elegant article. Mr. Hamilton's object is to show, that the westerly winds have in late years greatly increased in violence; that the forests, on the western coasts, are destroyed; that large portions of land are covered with sand, the warmth of the summers diminished, the cold of the winters equally lessened, and the general moisture of the climate increased. These points are well established; but we would look for them, not with our author in the artificial destruction of the forests in the time of James II. but in the great cause of all the other changes; viz. the force of the Western Ocean, which in every country shows the strongest marks of its vast powers; for, in the Peninsula of India, in Africa, and in the Shetland Islands, the mountains and the sources of the rivers are on the west, the adjoining country having seemingly been covered with the sea. This is the cause which has destroyed the forests, and overwhelmed what was once fertile, with sand, preventing the growth of, or destroying, that useful plant which confines the sandy ocean, the arundo arenaria. In return, however, these milder winters, and less fervid summers, diffuse cheerfulness and health; the storms, which destroy the forests, prevent the accumulation of infection; and, if the fruit is less matured, diseases are equally checked in their progress.

'IV. History of a Case in which very uncommon Worms were discharged from the Stomach; with Observations thereon, by Samuel Crumpe, M. D. M. R. I. A.'

Various cases occur to our recollection, where the discharge of uncommon worms was connected with inflammatory complaints. In the present instance, the disease was peripneumony, and the constitutional disorder hectic, yet without the slightest suspicion of their being connected with the worms, which are evidently the larvæ of some insect, not yet ascertained. They seem to have been lodged in a sac in the stomach, and discharged in consequence of suppuration. As the hectic, however, was greatly mitigated by the discharge, it is possible that an abscess formed in the lungs may have penetrated through the diaphragm into the stomach.

'V. Essay on the best Method of ascertaining the Areas of Countries of considerable Extent. By the Rev. James Whitelaw, Vicar of St. Catherine, Dublin, and M. R. I. A.'

It is justly observed, that, from the errors and irregularities attending every kind of projection of a spherical on a plain surface, it is impossible to measure, on a map, a large area; and that the superficial contents of large countries, as given by different geographers, differ in an astonishing degree. Our author, therefore, suggests the following easy, and comparatively accurate, method.

'Parallels of latitude, distant from each other one degree, will divide the spherical surface of the earth into 180 narrow zones; the area of each of these, in square miles of 60 to a degree, is found by multiplying its sine in miles and decimals of a mile by 21600, the circumference of a great circle in such miles; and the area of each zone, thus found, divided by 360, will give the area of each of the quadrilateral spaces, formed by the parallels, which include the zone and two meridians distant one degree of longitude from each other. On this principle the following table was constructed.' P. 71.

The table gives the area of the quadrilateral spaces, corresponding with the latitude of the zones. But we thus measure only so much of the area of the country as can be divided into quadrilaterals. The flowing and irregular outline is divided into what are called fractional spaces, and the measures of these are attained by approximation, with the assistance of the same table.

'VI. Three Schemes for conveying Intelligence to great Distances by Signals. By John Cooke, Esq. M. R. I. A.'

These forms of the telegraph are more distinct and comprehensive in their plans than any that we have yet seen; but we cannot explain them without the plates.

'VII. Observations on the Power of Painting to express mixed Passions. By the Rev. Michael Kearney, D. D. M. R. I. A.'

Dr. Kearney properly opposes the opinion of Sir Joshua Reynolds, that the painter should not endeavour to represent mixed passions. He remarks, that whatever the human countenance can express, the painter may copy. Perhaps Sir Joshua meant successive passions; but, even then, Dr. Kearney doubts whether the *vestigia risûs*, 'the smiling at grief,' may not be proper objects of imitation.

'VIII. An Essay on the Art of conveying secret and swift Intelligence. By Richard Lovell Edgeworth, Esq. F. R. S. M. R. I. A.'

We have been highly entertained and instructed by this history of the different means and uses of secret intelligence. In the direction of balloons, and some other circumstances, our author's expectations seem too sanguine; and what he attributes to secret and quick intelligence received, may have been the consequence of advice or directions secretly given. Thus, in a parliamentary speech during the American war, a democratic orator, like the late lord Chatham, in the anecdote mentioned by Mr. Edgeworth, seemingly in a prophetic enthusiasm, declared that, at the same moment, New-York itself was besieged by the American forces; but, from the subsequent publication of some letters, it appeared that Wash-

ington was particularly requeſted to make ſome approaches to New-York, to ſupport the apparent ſecond ſight. Mr. Edgeworth claims the invention of the telegraph prior to the French attempts. He ſeems to have conſiderably improved it, extending its powers and facilitating its uſe. In the preſent ſtate, it is an inſtrument of great utility; and, if, as our author has ſuppoſed (he ſpeaks not of the probability of the execution) it be *poſſible* to ſend a meſſage from the Frozen Ocean to Cape Horn, and procure an anſwer in 20 minutes, much converſation may paſs between England and China in a day. Mr. Edgeworth's improvements are unintelligible without the plates.

'IX. Of the Compoſition and Proportion of Carbon in Bitumens and Mineral Coal. By Richard Kirwan, Eſq. LL. D. F. R. S. and M. R. I. A.'

Mr. Kirwan has ſucceeded more completely than any preceding chemiſt, in the analyſis of bitumens. The objects of his inquiry are maltha and aſphalt; alſo Kilkenny coal, compact cannel, ſlaty cannel, Whitehaven, Wigan, Swanſey, Leitrim, and Newcaſtle coal. The Kilkenny, the compact cannel, and the Swanſey, contain the largeſt proportion of carbon; the Wigan, the ſlaty cannel, and the Whitehaven, the largeſt proportion of bitumen. It is remarkable, that the heat produced by coak exceeds that of charcoal.

'The cauſes of theſe differences deſerve attention, as the contrary might be preſumed. For in the firſt place I have ſtated that the carbonic part of pit coal is exactly the ſame as common charcoal, and therefore when equal weights of both are employed it ſhould be expected that the calorific effects of both ſhould coincide. In the next place it is known that pit coal and woods containing a large proportion of oil muſt contain a large proportion of inflammable air, and this in combuſtion gives out more heat than an equal weight of mere carbon in the proportion of 3 to 1. Therefore it ſhould ſeem that a ſmall quantity of wood ſhould produce the ſame calorific effect as a larger of charcoal.

'To remove theſe difficulties I ſhall lay down two poſitions: 1ſt, That the quantity of heat given out by carbon is to that given out by an equal weight of inflammable air (or hydrogen as it is now called) as 1 to 3.

'2dly, That to communicate equal quantities of heat, in the caſe now before us, atmoſpheric air muſt have taken up either equal quantities of mere carbon or a quantity of inflammable air equal to one-third of the deficiency.

'Now on examination it will be found that there is ſufficient reaſon to think that this equality or compenſation took place in every inſtance.

'Thus, comparing coaks and charcoal, we must observe that, according to Dr. Watson's experiments, charcoal gains 9 per cent. by exposure to the air for a few days after it is made, by absorbing partly air and partly moisture.—3 Watson, p. 43. And, according to Dr. Priestley, 15 per cent. in a month; and this seems its maximum.—3 Priest. p. 417. new edit. But coaks gain only 3 per cent.—3 Wats, p. 46. and still less when well burned. These deductions being made, it will be found that the above-mentioned 600 lbs. of charcoal will be reduced to 510, and the 403 lbs. of coak to 391; the difference then is only 119 lbs.

'To account for the equality of results, notwithstanding this difference, we must consider that coal containing asphalt, a much denser substance than any vegetable oil, is never so thoroughly chared as woods are, as Doctor Watson has also hinted; so we have seen that Newcastle coal is reduced only 72 per cent. though it contains but 58 per cent of carbon. Coaks therefore always retain some remains of bitumen, and consequently of hydrogen; and in this case $\frac{119}{3}$ or 39 parts of hydrogen would compensate for the defalcation of 119 of carbon.

'On the other hand, if we compare the quantities of pit coal and charcoal we shall find that 100 parts of such pit coal as is commonly chared, containing at a medium 60 per cent. or more of mere carbon, 600 lbs. of it should contain 360 of carbon, or perhaps more; and as it also contains much hydrogen, it might be expected to give out a much greater proportion of heat than 391 of coak or 510 of charcoal; but here we must take into the account the vast quantities of smoke and soot it throws out, which absorb a large proportion of its heat, and moreover the bottom of the vessels heated by it are mostly covered with soot, which considerably obstructs the communication of heat.' P. 164.

The best coal for common purposes is that in which the carbon is, to the bitumen, nearly in the proportion of 5 to 4. This is nearly that of the component parts of Newcastle coal.

'X. Synoptical View of the State of the Weather in Dublin. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. LL. D. F. R. S. and M. R. I. A.'

As these views are very valuable, we will give the substance of them. In the year 1794, the range of the barometer was from 30.71 to 29.12, that of the thermometer from $81\frac{1}{2}°$ in July to 27° in January. The wettest month was November; the dryest was January. The rain amounted to 28.8. The mean heat of April was 50.74.

The year 1795 was considerably colder. The barometer was highest in November; viz. 30.8; and lowest in October, 28.9. The thermometer was from 78° to $19\frac{1}{2}°$. The wettest month was October; September was the dryest. The rain,

in the whole, did not exceed 20.4 inches. The mean heat of April was 47°.

The year 1796 was colder than the preceding year; but the cold chiefly prevailed during the firſt 6 months. The barometer was at 30.7 in March, October, and December; and, in January, at 28.7. In June, July, and Auguſt, the heat did not exceed 73°; and, on the 24th of December, it was at 20°. The wetteſt month was May; but, on the whole, the year was dry, only 19.9 inches of rain having fallen. The mean heat of April was 49.8.

In the year 1797 the barometer varied only from 30.7 in February and December, to 30.3 in June. The thermometer was from 69 to 22; the mean heat of April was 46°. The greateſt quantity of rain fell in Auguſt, apparently in conſequence of ſtorms of thunder; but, independently of theſe, in October. The rain, in the whole, amounted to 24.4 inches.

'XI. Thoughts on Magnetiſm. By Richard Kirwan, Eſq. LL. D. F. R. S. and M. R. I. A.'

Whatever has engaged Mr. Kirwan's attention, is, in ſome degree, elucidated by his inquiries, or illuſtrated by his ingenuity. Yet, perhaps, in theſe 'thoughts' he has done leſs than on ſome other ſubjects; and, in referring magnetiſm to cryſtalliſation, he has only concentred our views and ſpeculations in what was before well known, the phænomena of attraction and repulſion. He ſuppoſes that, from the mean denſity of the globe, a great part of it, at leaſt towards the centre, muſt be ferrugineous, and that this ferrugineous matter, coaleſcing and cryſtalliſing according to the laws of cryſtalliſation, from North to South, influences the polarity of iron ſuſpended near the earth. The idea of the greater denſity of the earth near its centre we have occaſionally ſuggeſted, to demonſtrate the abſurdity of the doctrine of a central fire; but that this centre is a ferrugineous ore is a ſuppoſition too violent, and wholly gratuitous. If it ſhould be admitted, it leaves the ſubject nearly where it was; for the problem to be ſolved is, the cauſe of that influence which produces the repulſion between ſimilar, and attraction between oppoſite poles. The laws of cryſtalliſation are applicable, as they conſiſt both in attraction and repulſion; but theſe act only at an indefinitely ſmall diſtance, and in the moment of union. In this reſpect they cannot, we think, fairly be applied to magnetic phænomena.

'XII. On the Method of determining the Longitude, by Obſervations of the Meridian Paſſages of the Moon and a Star made at two Places. By the Rev. James Archibald Hamilton, D. D. Profeſſor of Aſtronomy at Armagh.'

'XIII. On the Method of taking Radicals out of Equa-

tions. By Mr. D. Mooney, A. B. Trinity College, Dublin. Communicated by Whitley Stokes, M. D. F. D. C. D. and M. R. I. A.'

Of these two excellent papers it is impossible to convey an adequate idea: to the first our unreserved commendation is due.

(To be continued.)

Sermons preached to a Country Congregation: to which are added, a few Hints for Sermons; intended chiefly for the Use of the Younger Clergy. By William Gilpin, Prebendary of Salisbury, and Vicar of Boldre, in New Forest. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell *and* Davies. 1799.

THESE sermons are plain practical discourses, suited to the audience for which they were intended; and they may be useful to the younger clergy in supplying them with good materials for the edification of their auditors. The 'hints' may be recommended still more strongly; and their origin struck us so forcibly, that, for the sake of extending to the utmost of our power so beneficial a practice, we will give an account of them in the words of the author.

'It was long the author's practice, when he walked about his parish, and afterwards when he was able only to walk into his garden and fields, to take with him in a memorandum-book a text or two of scripture, which he had before chosen, on account of some observations which he thought arose from it; or some objection, which he thought might be answered. As he did not mean to carry his observations into length, he took only such texts as he thought naturally opened themselves, though the subject sometimes carried him farther than he at first intended; so that some of them are very short, and others were the employment of several walks.

'From these hints the author commonly took his sermons; and though many of the subjects are too critical—too refined—or too deep for a common audience, yet he always found among them a subject for his purpose. The rest, being left in the memorandum-book, increased into a large body.

'From this book those few which are printed at the end of the sermons, are taken. They are mere sketches; though, perhaps, for that reason, they have more spirit than finished pieces.

'The author enters into this detail with a modest view of being of service to such of his younger brethren as will pursue the mode of exercise which he here prescribes, and of which he gives these examples. At first, it may be difficult to fix the mind on any subject of meditation, amidst a variety of external objects. But a habit of thinking abroad will soon be formed; and when it is formed,

the practice will certainly be followed with great advantage. If the young student spend two hours in a day in walking exercise, he will by this practice save to his studies at least seven hundred hours in a year.

'But he will say, perhaps, it is too great a tax upon his mind in quest of amusement, and may deprive him of its end.

'Scholars will sometimes tell him, that even a severe study is a relaxation from another severe study, as it gives the mind a different ply. But in the employment here recommended, no intensity of thought is required. He only puts down what first strikes him on a subject of which he had had before a general conception. When the subject grows intricate—or when his thoughts do not naturally, or, if I may so speak, amusingly, flow from it, he is under no necessity to proceed. He may drop it, and take another subject.

'Nor is he so tied down to any subject, as not occasionally to look around him, and enjoy the beauties of nature, if any offer themselves in his walk.—And indeed so enlivening a mode of study, if the day be fine, and the country agreeable, will give his mind an elasticity and vigour, which he could not feel in his study.

'The whole then amounts only to this—that to render our walks not only more useful, but even more amusing, we should always have some pleasing employment at hand. What hath here been recommended, one should hope, would be a more pleasing employment to a serious young clergyman—at least a more clerical one, than a fishing-rod or a fowling-piece can furnish.

'The author mentioned his sermons, and his mode of composing them, with diffidence: but he recommends this mode of exercise with confidence.' P. ix.

In this manner a young clergyman may lay the basis of much scriptural knowledge, and gradually acquire the power of communicating it to great advantage. We will give some specimens of the author's plan, which will enable our readers in the clerical line to see with what ease it may be adopted.

'*That which is highly esteemed among men, is abomination in the sight of God.*'—Luke 16. xv.

'Look into any part of life, and you will find this truth ascertained. We are continually doing things, which are highly esteemed among men, but abominable in the sight of God. Maxims in trade and business are directed chiefly to the accumulation of wealth. Amusements are carried far beyond the idea of relaxation, and end in dissipation and riot. Even the pursuits of science are often carried too far—and end in what the scriptures call worldly wisdom—often in infidelity.—Now all these things, and various other things, which may be classed with them, are highly esteemed among men, though they are abomination in the sight of God.

'The great conclusion therefore is, that the opinion and judgement of the world should never be made the criterion of our ac-

tions. We have a true criterion given us in the ſcriptures, and there we ſhould ſeek it.' P. 361.

'Let us next turn to the ſpecial advantages of this mode of worſhip.

'The firſt is, that it tends more, perhaps, than any other ſpecies of devotion, to form the heart. All men are, more or leſs, inclined to the *opus operatum.* It is by no means ſolely confined to popery. Though we ſhould be impreſſed on all occaſions, when we pray to God, with the higheſt reverence, yet we are too apt, both when we pray at church, and in our cloſets, to make our prayers matter of form. Do the beſt we can, they are often cold and languid. The occurrences of life are too apt to obtrude themſelves upon us. But when we have God in all our thoughts, the occurrences of life make up our very prayers. They furniſh materials for them.

'The diſſenter therefore uſes no form: the miniſter keeps up the attention of the congregation by an extempore prayer: which would certainly have the preference, if every miniſter was properly qualified for this ſervice; and if a congregation could readily follow an extempore prayer. But, in fact, I think the chief difference, with regard to form, between them and us, is, that their forms are gotten by heart, and ours are written.

'I am not fond of comparing one duty with another, as it often throws a depreciating exception, where it is not intended. And yet it is not eaſy, in ſome caſes, without a compariſon, to get at the truth. Public devotion, cloſet devotion, and the devotion here examined, are all certainly highly good, and all preſcribed by our religion; but the mind is certainly in a fitter frame for devotion, when it breaks out in its own ſpontaneous effuſions, than when it is excited by the ſound of a bell.

'Another advantage, which attends this mode of prayer, is the great eaſineſs of it. We carry the temple along with us. We need no temple, but the heart. We have not even the trouble of entering into our cloſet, and ſhutting the door. We may every where—in all companies—amidſt any buſineſs—pray in ſecret to our Father.' P. 424.

Mr. Gilpin ſeems to think that the diſſenter, as his prayers are extemporaneous, has the advantage of applying them to any particular occaſion; and he exemplifies the caſe of a meeting by the ſea-ſide, when the firſt fleet ſailed to Botany-Bay; but we may obſerve, that the miniſter might in the church, in his prayer before and after the ſermon, have availed himſelf of the opportunity of deſiring the prayers of the congregation for the ſucceſs of the expedition. From the anecdote given of an apparently religious man, nearly eighty years of age, who was denied by a perſon, called methodiſti-

cal, to be in the way of salvation, we were induced to attend more strictly to the text that gave rise to the note, in which our author remarks, that 'the vulgar unlettered Christian may have the favour of God, though he may not have that exalted faith which some religionists require from all without distinction.' We do not approve the term *religionist*; nor do we believe the vulgar unlettered Christian more likely to wander from the 'one faith' required by scripture than others. Indeed, the great defect in these discourses is, that this faith is not inculcated with that *onction*, or that energy, which, though it is sometimes carried to excess by the methodists, we must in these times of infidelity particularly recommend to the teachers of Christianity.

Essays, Political, Economical, and Philosophical. By Benjamin Count of Rumford. Vol. I. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Cadell *and* Davies.

THE respectful tribute which we have constantly paid to the talents of count Rumford, as a philosopher and a political œconomist, will preclude any suspicion that our delay in noticing his late essays could proceed from disrespect. As the causes that have prevented us from pursuing these inquiries, with so able a guide, are uninteresting to the reader, we proceed to observe, that we before examined only the first of the five essays contained in the present volume; that which relates to the public establishment of the poor in Bavaria. The second essay is equally valuable; containing 'the fundamental principles on which general establishments for the relief of the poor may be formed in all countries.' In the *collection*, perhaps, this essay should have been the first, since it details the principles on which the establishment at Munich was founded. The author details these principles with great propriety, and adds some minute practical directions. The following passage affords an interesting specimen of the tenderness of his feelings.

'Persons who are reduced to indigent circumstances, and become objects of public charity, come under the direction of those who are appointed to take care of them with minds weakened by adversity, and soured by disappointment; and finding themselves separated from the rest of mankind, and cut off from all hope of seeing better days, they naturally grow peevish and discontented, suspicious of those set over them, and of one another; and the kindest treatment, and most careful attention to every circumstance that can render their situation supportable, are therefore required, to prevent their being very unhappy. And nothing surely can con-

tribute more powerfully to soothe the minds of persons in such unfortunate and hopeless circumstances, that to find themselves under the care and protection of persons of gentle manners;—humane dispositions;—and known probity and integrity: such as even they,—with all their suspicions about them, may venture to love and respect.

'Whoever has taken the pains to investigate the nature of the human mind, and examine attentively those circumstances upon which human happiness depends, must know how necessary it is to happiness, that the mind should have some object upon which to place its more tender affections—something to love,—to cherish,—to esteem,—to respect,—and to venerate; and these resources are never so necessary as in the hour of adversity and discouragement, where no ray of hope is left to cheer the prospect, and stimulate to fresh exertion.

'The lot of the poor, particularly of those who, from easy circumstances and a reputable station in society, are reduced by misfortunes, or oppression, to become a burthen on the public, is truly deplorable, after all that can be done for them:—and were we seriously to consider their situation, I am sure we should think that we could never do too much to alleviate their sufferings, and soothe the anguish of wounds which can never be healed.

'For the common misfortunes of life, hope is a sovereign remedy. But what remedy can be applied to evils, which involve even the loss of hope itself? and what can those have to hope, who are separated and cut off from society, and for ever excluded from all share in the affairs of men? To them, honours;—distinctions;—praise;—and even property itself;—all those objects of laudable ambition which so powerfully excite the activity of men in civil society, and contribute so essentially to happiness, by filling the mind with pleasing prospects of future enjoyments, are but empty names; or rather, they are subjects of never-ceasing regret and discontent.

'That gloom must indeed be dreadful, which overspreads the mind, when hope, that bright luminary of the soul, which enlightens and cheers it, and calls forth into action all its best faculties, has disappeared!

'There are many, it is true, who, from their indolence or extravagance, or other vicious habits, fall into poverty and distress, and become a burthen on the public, who are so vile and degenerate as not to feel the wretchedness of their situation. But these are miserable objects which the truly benevolent will regard with an eye of peculiar compassion;—they must be very unhappy, for they are very vicious; and nothing should be omitted that can tend to reclaim them;—but nothing will tend so powerfully to reform them, as kind usage from the hands of persons they must learn to love and to respect at the same time.' P. 133.

To excite a ſpirit of induſtry is one of the firſt and moſt difficult attempts, as men are naturally indolent. Our author's plans have been hitherto ſucceſsful; and they deſerve to be ſo; for they are benevolent and judicious: but there are ſome circumſtances in the conſtitution of the poor to which he has not adverted; we mean what may be ſtyled the goſſiping diſpoſition, by which their querulous diſcontents are inflamed and exaggerated; and their attachment to the little luxuries of ſnuff, tea, and ſpirits. The firſt will perhaps be leſſened by the induſtry excited; but the ſecond will be with difficulty broken; nor are we certain that, in every part of England, the œconomical regulations of fuel, &c. would be adopted; ſo obſtinately are the poor wedded to their cuſtoms. The reſort to the retail ſhop, where ſnuff and news are equally diſtributed, is conſidered as amuſing and almoſt neceſſary. We have known excellent ſoup rejected, or ſold for tea; but, on the whole, the poor begin to ſee their own intereſts in a juſter light, and the ſpirit of reform is now commencing. One of the moſt promiſing of the new plans is the diſtribution of articles, particularly neceſſary, in ſmall quantities, and at reduced prices.

The count earneſtly recommends union in charitable exertions. Private charities are undoubtedly leſs uſeful; and ſome boaſted ones are, we fear, ſo private, that even their ſuppoſed objects have never heard of them. The particular management of the propoſed eſtabliſhments cannot be abridged; but the accounts merit great attention, and may ultimately lead to the author's principal object, the annihilation of the poor-rates, the ſplendid monument of Engliſh benevolence, but the unfortunate ſource of indolence, intemperance, and depravity.

The third eſſay is on food. It contains various facts of great importance, and unexpected reſults of ſome very ſimple experiments. The chief of theſe is the very ſmall price at which a full and nutritious meal can be procured; this, in a variety of ways, ſcarcely exceeds one penny. Water alone may become, for a time, the food of a vegetable; and ſome of the acrid vegetables, nouriſhed by water only, poſſeſs their peculiar pungency. Whether this principle is only derived from the air, or produced by one of the ingredients of the water, decompounded by vegetation, is not certain. The count, however, attributes it to the latter, and transfers this ſyſtem to the nutrition of the animal œconomy from water only. In this doctrine we cannot agree; and we think it more objectionable when he ſpeaks of the vegetable infuſions aſſiſting the decompoſition, or preparing the water for a more ready diſunion. We would explain the problem differently. It is well known, that, in general, nouriſhment is taken with a

lavish profusion. The times of eating crowd too hastily on each other; the quantity is too great, and the nutritious qualities are too rich. The constitution, content with what it can most easily separate, leaves the rest unchanged, even when it assimilates, as sometimes happens, more than is required. This is known from a chemical examination of the discharges, from their utility as manures, and from the experience of those who have been obliged to live on little, or have been accidentally deprived of food. In these cases, the whole is assimilated. Dogs too, fed wholly (though scantily) on bones, discharge matter almost entirely calcareous. This profusion of our nourishment is in some measure necessary, in order to keep up a certain degree of distension of the stomach, and enable it to retain the substances for the purpose of digestion. If the substance is very minutely divided, and a sufficient bulk produced, both objects will be attained. The alimentary substance will be completely assimilated, the distension of the stomach will be kept up, and the constitution will receive as much support as it would from ten times the quantity, not one tenth of which would be digested. This seems to be the whole secret; for water, in the animal system, appears so essentially necessary for filling the vessels, that to admit a power of decompounding it would be to introduce an agent whose influence might be destructive.

Nutriment consists, in general, of a substance purely alimentary, and the seasoning, or, in scientific language, the condiment. By habit, the latter is become absolutely necessary; but, in a certain degree, it was always so. Our own alkalescent and acrid vegetables supply a sufficient variety of condiments; and some of these the author has overlooked, since pepper is so cheap. In general, onions and garlic sufficiently supply the soup with a salutary poignancy; but one of the most pleasing and useful ingredients is the red herring; and cheese is another; these furnish, more frequently than is supposed, the flavour of soups at the tables of the rich and luxurious. The use of Indian corn the count strongly recommends, when the raw taste has been, by long boiling, removed. This corn is about as heavy as wheat, and gives nearly as much flour.

'In regard to the most advantageous method of using Indian corn as food, I would strongly recommend, particularly when it is employed for feeding the poor, a dish made of it that is in the highest estimation throughout America, and which is really very good, and very nourishing. This is called hasty-pudding; and it is made in the following manner: a quantity of water, proportioned to the quantity of hasty-pudding intended to be made, is put over the fire in an open iron pot, or kettle, and a proper quantity of salt for sea-

ſoning the pudding being previouſly diſſolved in the water; Indian meal is ſtirred into it, by little and little, with a wooden ſpoon with a long handle, while the water goes on to be heated and made to boil;—great care being taken to put in the meal by very ſmall quantities, and by ſifting it ſlowly through the fingers of the left hand, and ſtirring the water about very briſkly at the ſame time with the wooden ſpoon, with the right hand, to mix the meal with the water in ſuch a manner as to prevent lumps being formed.—The meal ſhould be added ſo ſlowly, that, when the water is brought to boil, the maſs ſhould not be thicker than water-gruel, and half an hour more, at leaſt, ſhould be employed to add the additional quantity of meal neceſſary for bringing the pudding to be of the proper conſiſtency; during which time it ſhould be ſtirred about continually, and kept conſtantly boiling.—The method of determining when the pudding has acquired the proper conſiſtency is this;—the wooden ſpoon uſed for ſtirring it being placed upright in the middle of the kettle, if it falls down, more meal muſt be added; but if the pudding is ſufficiently thick and adheſive to ſupport it in a vertical poſition, it is declared to be proof; and no more meal is added.—If the boiling, inſtead of being continued only half an hour, be prolonged to three quarters of an hour, or an hour, the pudding will be conſiderably improved by this prolongation.

'This haſty-pudding, when done, may be eaten in various ways.—It may be put, while hot, by ſpoonfuls into a bowl of milk, and eaten with the milk with a ſpoon, in lieu of bread; and uſed in this way it is remarkably palatable.—It may likewiſe be eaten, while hot, with a ſauce compoſed of butter and brown ſugar, or butter and molaſſes, with or without a few drops of vinegar; and however people who have not been accuſtomed to this American cookery may be prejudiced againſt it, they will find upon trial that it makes a moſt excellent diſh, and one which never fails to be much liked by thoſe who are accuſtomed to it.—The univerſal fondneſs of Americans for it proves that it muſt have ſome merit;—for in a country which produces all the delicacies of the table in the greateſt abundance, it is not to be ſuppoſed that a whole nation ſhould have a taſte ſo depraved as to give a decided preference to any particular ſpecies of food which has not ſomething to recommend it.

'The manner in which haſty-pudding is eaten with butter and ſugar, or butter and molaſſes, in America, is as follows: the haſty-pudding being ſpread out equally upon a plate, while hot, an excavation is made in the middle of it, with a ſpoon, into which excavation a piece of butter, as large as a nutmeg, is put; and upon it, a ſpoonful of brown ſugar, or more commonly of molaſſes.—The butter being ſoon melted by the heat of the pudding, mixes with the ſugar, or molaſſes, and forms a ſauce, which, being confined in the excavation made for it, occupies the middle of the plate.—The pudding is then eaten with a ſpoon, each ſpoonful of it being dipt

into the sauce before it is carried to the mouth; care being had in taking it up, to begin on the outside, or near the brim of the plate, and to approach the centre by regular advances, in order not to demolish too soon the excavation which forms the reservoir for the sauce.' P. 253.

A pound of this pudding, even when the meal is bought at a dear rate, does not amount in value to three farthings, without the sauce, which adds nearly as much more to the expense. Macaroni, which is only a dried paste, is also a cheap and nourishing food. Various other forms of cheap food are added.

'Receipt for a very cheap Soup.

'Take of water eight gallons, and mixing with it 5lb. of barley-meal, boil it to the consistency of a thick jelly.—Season it with salt, pepper, vinegar, sweet herbs, and four red herrings, pounded in a mortar.—Instead of bread, add to it 5lb. of Indian corn made into samp, and stirring it together with a ladle, serve it up immediately in portions of 20 ounces.

'Samp, which is here recommended, is a dish said to have been invented by the savages of North America, who have no corn-mills.—It is Indian corn deprived of its external coat by soaking it ten or twelve hours in a lixivium of water and wood-ashes.—This coat, or husk, being separated from the kernel, rises to the surface of the water, while the grain, which is specifically heavier than water, remains at the bottom of the vessel; which grain, thus deprived of its hard coat of armour, is boiled, or rather simmered for a great length of time, two days for instance, in a kettle of water placed near the fire.—When sufficiently cooked, the kernels will be found to be swelled to a great size and burst open, and this food, which is uncommonly sweet and nourishing, may be used in a great variety of ways; but the best way of using it is to mix it with milk, and with soups, and broths, as a substitute for bread. It is even better than bread for these purposes, for besides being quite as palatable as the very best bread, as it is less liable than bread to grow too soft when mixed with these liquids, without being disagreeably hard, it requires more mastication, and consequently tends more to increase and prolong the pleasure of eating.' P. 293.

For other remarks on this subject, and particularly for the necessity constantly inculcated of forming messes, or feeding a number together, we must refer to the work.

The fourth essay contains an account of the chimney fire-places, improved by our author, who well explains their construction and the foundations of their utility. The only inconvenience resulting from them is the vast quantity of dust which they throw into the room.

The fifth essay is miscellaneous, containing short accounts of the military academy at Munich, of the means used to improve the breed of horses and horned cattle in Bavaria and the Palatinate, of the measures pursued for the abolition of usury in Munich, and of a scheme for employing the soldiery in Bavaria, in repairing the highways and public roads. These plans display acute discernment and extensive views; and many parts might be with great propriety, adopted in this country.

The Appendix consists of various documents. It is unnecessary to particularise all these; but we may observe, that the experiments on baking rye bread contain some facts of general importance. The diminution in baking was about one eighth of the original weight; and it was found highly expedient to keep the oven constantly '*going*,' as, in suffering it to cool, a much greater expense of fuel was occasioned. About one pound of wood, on the average, sufficed to bake four pounds of bread: at least, this was the result of the experiments in the large way. From an ingenious and accurate calculation, however, if the heat could be so managed that none should be lost, a pound of wood would bake thirteen pounds and a quarter of bread. Two thirds of the heat are consequently lost or unaccounted for.

Of the Irish food calecannon (consisting of potatoes boiled and washed, with about one fifth of their weight of boiled greens, mixed up with butter, salt, pepper, and ginger), each portion, viz. one quart, costs less than two-pence. Five sixths of the heat, by the bad construction of the boiler, were lost. By a diminution of the quantity of butter, much of the expense might be saved. The price of coal too, in this country, is less. The count, however, shows that, even in Ireland, where coal is imported, a good meal may be prepared for 3210 persons at the expense only of 5d.¾ in fuel; so that the former assertion, that, at Munich, the fuel necessary to prepare a meal for 1000 people would not amount to four-pence daily, is sufficiently supported.

The Annual Necrology, for 1797-8; including, also, various Articles of neglected Biography. 8vo. 10s. 6d. *Boards.* Phillips. 1800.

THE idea of collecting, immediately after the death of distinguished persons, and while the recollection of their conduct and conversation is yet fresh, whatever can illustrate their character, or interest mankind concerning them, is certainly judicious. We are therefore happy in announcing to the public the Annual Necrology, believing that, even if the

work should be ill executed, it will prove uſeful to thoſe who may devote their time to the continuation of that great national work, the Biographia Britannica, and to thoſe who may be occupied in writing the hiſtory of their country.

If the writers of the articles now before us have added nothing to the poliſh of our language, if they have not produced any thing worthy of the ſtudy of the Johnſons and the Plutarchs of our times, they have recorded ſome *facts* of importance, which, without their information, might have been forgotten, and they have ſnatched from oblivion ſome characters which merit our regard.

We are ſorry to obſerve, that many of the accounts, even of men whoſe lives were remarkable, and talents conſiderable, are given without any, or with few, intereſting or inſtructive features. The biographical ſketch of the late Mr. Wilkes is little worthy of attention. It is impoſſible from this narrative to form a juſt notion of the talents or the integrity of the alderman of Farringdon Without. Some ſaid he was a good patriot, and others ſaid that he deceived the people; and the writer of his life leaves us almoſt as much in the dark as ever with regard to him. Gibbon and Tooke affirm that he was a ſcoundrel, who ſought preferment through the tumults of the people: all allow that his private life was profligate, and all *ought* to allow that his public life was *uſeful*; but his preſent biographer is no guide to our inquiries concerning him.

The life of Dr. Kippis is inſipid beyond the meaſure of ordinary inſipidity. Although Kippis was a character little intereſting, yet he was ſo much connected with diſtinguiſhed men, that a perſon competently informed and qualified might have made the life of the editor of the Biographia Britannica very entertaining. The life of Mr. Fell is evidently the production of one who was not qualified for the taſk: it is ill written, and breathes none of the ſpirit of that philoſophy which raiſed the character of Fell. This puny biographer dares not tell us that Fell was a taylor, until he was above twenty years old, leſt, forſooth, the vulgar contempt attached to that buſineſs ſhould tarniſh all his future glory. No man, merely from reading this account of Fell, can form any judgement of the perſecuted tutor of Homerton Academy, who, from being a taylor, became an eminent diſſenting miniſter, a good ſcholar, and a conſiderable philoſopher. Fell had an ardent mind, and was capable of great application; but he never attained an elegance of ſtyle, or a poetic energy in diſcourſe. His intercourſe with the world had been limited: he had chiefly aſſociated with ignorant men; and he had thence adopted a diſguſting arrogance of manner, and an affectation of knowledge and ſagacity truly ridiculous. The lives of Maſon and Farmer, we think, proceed from the ſame pen; the ſtyle is

ſimilar; and they diſcover a great candour of mind. The account of Maſon chiefly conſiſts of critical remarks on his poetry; for his life was not eventful. The life of Mr. George Anderſon is, perhaps, the beſt in this volume; it is a ſimple unadorned narrative of the life of one who, from the loweſt ſtation as a labourer in agriculture, became an eminent mathematician. The writer, unlike the biographer of Fell, ſcruples not to tell us that Anderſon ſpent his early youth in the barn, and that his firſt ſcientific friend found him threſhing corn when he viſited him.

The life of Mary Wollſtonecraft is written with care and attention; but in ſome particulars it is not what we could wiſh it to have been. The narrative of the events of her life was before the public: it ought, therefore, to have been compreſſed, and an eſſay on her genius and character attempted. Her preſent biographer runs over the whole of the narrative, and gives us little concerning her genius and character. The life, however, is not without merit; and many paſſages might be ſelected from it, written with all the vigour of the ſublimeſt feeling. The ſentiment and language of the following paragraph are worthy of praiſe.

'It is to ſpeculative and enterpriſing ſpirits, whom ſtronger powers and more impetuous paſſions impel forward, regardleſs of eſtabliſhed uſages, that all great changes and improvements in ſociety have owed their origin. If, intoxicated by contemplating the grand projects in their imagination, they deviate into extravagance, and loſe ſight of the nature of man, their theories remain to be corrected by experience, while, in the gratitude of poſterity, the contemporary cry of intereſt will be abſorbed and forgotten.

'To advance on the ſcale of reaſon half the ſpecies, is no ignoble ambition. The efforts of the extraordinary woman whoſe life we are about to review, were directed to the emancipation of her own ſex, whom ſhe conſidered as ſunk in a ſtate of degradation, glorying in their weakneſs, voluntarily ſurrendering the privilege of rational agents, and contending, in her own emphatic language, "for the ſentiment that brutalized them." P. 412.

We do not envy the feelings of the man who, acquainted with the ſtate of ſociety, which may be termed the exceſs of civiliſation, can read the following paragraph without emotion, or paſs away from it without a ſigh.

'Woe be to theſe victims of vice or ſuperſtition, if, too ingenuous for habitual hypocriſy, they cannot ſtifle in the bottom of their hearts thoſe feelings which ſhould conſtitute their happineſs and their glory: that ſenſibility, which is the charm of their ſex, in ſuch ſituations becomes its bittereſt curſe: in ſubmitting to their deſtiny they rarely eſcape inſult; in overſtepping the bounds pre-

scribed to them, by a single error, they become involved in a labyrinth of perplexity and distress. In vain may reflexion enable them to contemn distinctions, that, confounding truth and morals, poison virtue at its source: overwhelmed by a torrent of contumely and reproach, a host of foes encompass their path, exaggerate their weakness, distort their principles, misrepresent their actions, and, with deadly malice, or merciless zeal, seek to drive them from the haunts of civil life.' P. 455.

We wish that the writer of this life would attempt an essay on the character of Mrs. Wollstonecraft; for he possesses, we think, ability to do her justice; to discuss the propriety of conduct in the present state of society, to examine laws, to analyse customs, and to instruct us how to feel and how to act.

To us Mrs. Wollstonecraft appears to have been a woman of powerful feelings and vigorous genius. Her private letters are models of tenderness; and her attachment and resolution are equally remarkable. She should have been the wife of a hero, and his companion in the camp. Great events and great enterprise would have suited her mind; and she would have been at once the companion, the friend, and the comforter, of Peter the Great. She was an extraordinary woman; but her judgement was as weak as her feelings were strong; and we must not be surprised, if a small vessel hoist the sails of a man of war, to see it overset, and rolling in the waves.

Upon the whole, we rather admire the plan than the execution of this work. The different lives, written by different hands, discover various talents; but we cannot select one original life remarkable for elegant or vigorous composition, and fraught with philosophical remarks. We are glad, however, that the work is begun, and we hope that the future volumes of it will display more talents, and afford a greater share of entertainment and instruction.

An Inquiry into the Principles of National Order, with Reflections on the present State of the Christian World, the probable Causes of War, and the best Means of promoting and securing the future Peace of Europe. To which are prefixed Two Tracts, written by Edward Earl of Clarendon, on the Subjects of War and Peace. By W. Gisborne, D.D. 4s. Boards. Allen.

HE who is induced, by this pompous title-page, to expect from Dr. Gisborne a grand scheme for the settlement and preservation of the peace of Europe, founded upon the springs of human action, and on the basis of general interests, will

find himſelf egregiouſly diſappointed. The mind of the well-meaning author of this work has been caſt in too humble a mould, and habituated to reflexions of too vulgar a caſt, to be fitted for great exertions, for the luminous inveſtigation of moral cauſes, or the improvement of ſcience and legiſlation.

The two tracts on peace and war, by lord Clarendon, prefixed to this work, are the trifling effuſions of a conſiderable mind, written in the copious ſtrong ſtyle of that well-known author; but containing no more than the common-place remarks of every man who thinks at all upon theſe important ſubjects. Indeed, the caſe, ſo ſingular and libellous to human nature, ſo ſelf-contradictory, of *war-making* CHRISTIANS, is ſtrongly put. We earneſtly wiſh that any could ſo effectually put it, as at once to baniſh theſe monſters from the world, and make nations either ceaſe to aſſume the Chriſtian appellation, or ceaſe to ſhed human blood.

Viewing the diſorders of the preſent moment, and recounting the evils of preceding times, Dr. Giſborne maintains, that, notwithſtanding all the tremendous diſorders which have convulſed ſociety, a principle of order is firmly eſtabliſhed in nature, in the material world and amongſt men; and he here takes occaſion to run over the vulgar remarks, which have been made a thouſand times, and which are truely made at all times, but on the preſent occaſion to no uſeful purpoſe, upon the eſtabliſhed laws of the planetary ſyſtem, and upon animal and vegetable life. He afterwards notices the inſtincts of animals, the ſocial and relative ties amongſt men, and thoſe circumſtances which have prevented the *entire extinction* of human exiſtence. He proceeds to Revelation, and there finds, what all find there, laws enforced, which, if obſerved, would give peace to the world.

The intelligent reader will aſk, What is there in all this to lead us *to expect* the eſtabliſhment of the future peace of Europe? Have not the laws of nature *always* exiſted? Have not the ſocial paſſions *always* exiſted? Has not Revelation long exiſted? And yet the peace of Europe has been continually broken; the diſorders of the world have mocked calculation, and drowned the good in ſorrow. Where then is this *new power* which is to ſecure the future peace of Europe? The doctor anſwers, *If men attend to the Goſpel*, war and diſorder will ceaſe. That is true; but *why* ſhould that *now* happen which never happened before? For almoſt 1800 years men have heard the Goſpel; and, with the Goſpel in their hands, they have made inceſſant war! Why did they not adhere to the laws of Chriſt? They profeſſed *his* religion; they preached *him* to others; and they conſecrated the

bannes of death at *his* altar! Do they do less *now?* Yet Dr. Gisborne has discovered, that, if men *attend* to the Gospel, they will not make war. So have we, and so has every man, discovered; but we wish to know the reason why we are to expect them to *attend* to that which they have violated, *religiously violated*, for many ages. The doctor's mind takes no notice of this difficulty; and he has written a large work to inform us, that, if men *be peaceable*, *they will be peaceable*. It is proper, however, that the reader should hear him speak for himself: we therefore transcribe his conclusion.

'What then are the grounds on which the calamities of war and all the other evils mankind can bring upon themselves as individuals, societies or nations, may be made to cease, be removed, and their return prevented? and what are also the grounds on which the state of peace may be promoted and preserved, and with it all the happiness of human life, and above all of that in which the happiness of the human race is intended to be consummated for ever? Certainly no other than an universal appeal to the sacred scriptures, or word of God, who is the source of all order, salvation, righteousness and peace, and of all true prosperity and happiness to mankind; for He alone is the supreme object, to which every one must resort for himself, and in concurrence with all others: it being in him that all the nations of the earth shall be united as to one and the same universal head, lawgiver, high-priest, lord and king; and being so, be equally blessed of him. His will, as most dearly made known, is the ground on which this union of all to him and to each other shall take place, be made, continued and increased for ever. According to his word, all the ends of the earth may look unto him and be saved; ceasing to commit the evil he has described and forbidden, and learning the good he has required, so as to acknowledge him by the obedience of the life he has given: and then all the effects he has promised of righteousness and peace will flow in the course he has ordained, for the order and harmony of the universe.

'Thus the Creator himself being the head of all authority, all human laws and government have their sole sanction by their agreement with his own, and his being so plain that all who will obey them shall know what is required, they who truly turn unto him according to his will, shall be delivered from the evils which otherwise would have ensued as the consequences of their conduct, and they shall be saved from offending against the order of the domestic societies of which they are members, of the countries of which they are subjects, and of the world of which they are inhabitants.

'In the case between different nations, it is his will that each should possess their several subdivisions of the earth in security and peace. In the case of all the different ranks of society his will is

the ſame; kings, miniſters, magiſtrates, maſters and parents, ſubjects, ſervants and children; all who govern, and all who are ſubject to authority, are equally within the laws of his divine order, and equally within the deſign of his protection in their perſons, names, offices, and in all the rights which are ſo deſcribed and provided for in his word, that none can be injured in the leaſt without offending againſt his will.——Such are the principles of national, ſocial, and domeſtic order; and ſuch the true grounds of a general concurrence in promoting and ſecuring the future peace not only of Europe, but of all the nations of the earth.' P. 209.

A Diſſertation on the modern Style of altering antient Cathedrals, as exemplified in the Cathedral of Saliſbury. By the Rev. John Milner, M. A. F. S. A. 4to. 3s. 6d. Pridden.

THE ſubject diſcuſſed in this pamphlet is important in the eye of every admirer of Gothic architecture and antiquities. The queſtion is, whether our ancient Gothic edifices ſhall be permitted to remain in the ſtate in which they now are, as even their encumbrances and defects have been ſanctified by time, or ſhall be improved by modern taſte, regulated by the original laws of their architecture.

On the firſt glance, it will be apparent that this is a queſtion of mere taſte, and that what one man approves may be diſapproved by another. Hence it becomes a ſubject of peculiar delicacy, which can hardly be diſcuſſed without perſonal offence. We can ſafely aſſert our complete impartiality on the topic; and, if we err, it muſt be imputed ſolely to our want of taſte in a ſubject of which there are few ſkilful ſtudents.

The motives of the venerable prelate, under whoſe auſpices the alterations at Saliſbury and Durham have been conducted, are certainly laudable. Had he expended the revenues of the church on objects of ſecular ambition, he might have ſlept in blameleſs repoſe, like many of his brethren and predeceſſors, while their cathedrals were in want of common repairs. The mere wantonneſs of malevolence alone can blame a dignified eccleſiaſtic for dedicating a part of his revenue to the improvement of the ſacred edifices under his care. Many perſons may be of opinion, that the biſhop could not have committed thoſe improvements to a more ſkilful architect than Mr. Wyatt. But, as they are of a moſt delicate nature and perpetual effect, we wiſh that the propoſed plans had been previouſly laid before the moſt renowned antiquaries for their ſeveral opinions. By this eaſy mean not only any envy or blame that might be attached to the alteration of monuments, which may be conſidered as the property of the kingdom at large, would have been done away, but the architect would alſo have eſcaped

the unavoidable ſuſpicions which even candour muſt entertain of a profeſſional man, intereſted in making the alterations as conſiderable as poſſible. Such improvements require learning, as well as ſkill and taſte: and that an architect ſhould be a man of erudition would be a moſt rare union of talents.

We have read this pamphlet of Mr. Milner with great care, and with a deſire of profiting by his remarks. The alterations he conſiders under three heads: 1. The loſs of ſeveral valuable monuments of antiquity: 2. The violation of the aſhes and memorials of illuſtrious perſons: 3. The deſtruction of the proportions and due relations of the ſeveral parts of the cathedral.

The firſt head remains to be proved, as theſe monuments appear to have been only tranſpoſed. Any loſs would indeed be highly blameable, but can only be imputed to the ignorance or careleſsneſs of the perſons employed.

The ſecond is in the ſame predicament. Our author *neſcit ponere totum*; he ſeems to be ignorant that no improvement whatever of a whole can take place, without ſmall ſacrifices and petty deſtructions.

The third alone deſerves ſerious attention. Mr. Milner ſays, that, by opening the Lady chapel at the end of the choir, the proportions of the cathedral of Saliſbury are injured. If this opinion be that of a majority of judges, and not the ſolitary decree of our author, the ſcreen ſhould be re-conſtructed, the ſimple remedy for this mighty miſchief.

Towards the cloſe of his pamphlet Mr. Milner evinces loſs of temper; but his candour fails him at an early period. He raiſes a hue and cry about the removal of the tomb of biſhop Poore, the founder of Saliſbury cathedral; yet unfortunately it is as clear as any point in hiſtory that this was a mere *cenotaph*, the biſhop having been buried at Tarent. It is want of candour in our author to prefer a modern authority on the ſubject to the uniform voice of the ancient narratives.

This bias has betrayed him into a ludicrous abſurdity. He ſuppoſes that biſhop Poore erected his own cenotaph, and that it of courſe forms a part of the *plan* of the cathedral! The probability is, that it was erected by ignorant gratitude long after his death; and that the biſhop himſelf, if he could have reviſited his foundation, would have been the firſt to vote for its expulſion, as a mere blot in the original plan.

Hence an obſervation of great conſequence to the preſent topic will naturally ariſe. The radical error of thoſe who blame the improvements is to conſider the whole of a cathedral, as it ſtands at this day, as one uniform edifice, proceeding upon one plan, becauſe they want ſkill and diſcrimination to perceive that ſubſequent additions, often the ſhapeleſs progeny of vanity or ignorance, really injure the original effect,

Any man of taſte, who may viſit the cathedral of Durham, will allow that the *galilee* at the weſt end is ſo far from being a part of the original deſign, that it is a mere wart and excreſcence. It deſtroys all the beauty and even intention of the weſt end, becauſe it leaves no room for an entrance by the uſual gate, and becauſe, the noble terrace which might otherwiſe lead round the cathedral being thus blocked up, a common thoroughfare has become neceſſary through that ſublime edifice—a profanation more ſtrange than any of the modern improvements. But thoſe who reaſon like our author would not allow a wart to be removed, leſt they ſhould injure the deſign and beauty of the hand.

In the *galilee* at Durham not a ſhadow of taſte is viſible: and when it unfortunately happens that ſmall parts, really beautiful, injure the effect of the whole, there is room for ſerious deliberation. Thoſe ſmall parts might be removed without being deſtroyed. If there be not room for their re-erection, in unobjectionable ſituations near the church, they might be transferred to opulent improvers in the neighbourhood, on the ſole terms (for any idea of ſale would be diſguſting) that they ſhould take them down, and erect them in the ſame form, ſtone by ſtone, on their grounds. Thus equally preſerved for the uſe of the antiquary, they would at the ſame time preſent real ancient edifices, at leſs expenſe, and with much greater effect, than any pretended ruins.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS, &c.

Review of the Arguments advanced in the Houſe of Commons, in Support of the Bill for granting an Aid and Contribution for the Proſecution of the War, by impoſing certain Duties upon Income. 8vo. 1*s.* Wright. 1799.

THE writer ſpeaks with great approbation of the tax upon income; and he aſſerts that incomes dependent on perſonal induſtry ought to be taxed equally with thoſe in which the intereſt in property is perpetual. ‘ For, if they are perpetual intereſts, they are expoſed to the tax in all future ages, whenever it may be neceſſary to adopt it.’ But, if we ſuppoſe that this tax ſhould laſt only for a few years, we will ſay to the end of the war, it is evident that the

person who has paid a given sum out of the produce of annual industry will have paid towards that war in a much greater proportion than he who paid the said sum out of an equal income arising from landed property. The plan of raising the supplies or part of them within the year, is properly defended; but the comparison of the effects of taxation on expenditure, capital, and income, is carried on with too great a bias in favour of the last.

Thoughts on Government, with a short View of the comparative Political Freedom enjoyed in France, America, Britain, &c. Dedicated to the Sovereign People. By George Watson, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Chapple. 1799.

Mr. Watson disapproves the three simple forms of government; and, after examining the constitutions of France, the United States of America, the United Provinces, and Switzerland, he bestows the pre-eminence on the unrivaled, though not absolutely perfect, constitution of Great-Britain. He is, however, not insensible to the 'alarming progress of bribery;' and, as a remedy to it, proposes that the elections for members of parliament should be carried on by ballot. He reprobates annual parliaments and universal suffrage, and asserts that, 'in Britain alone, the constitution is never violated.' This will appear a strange assertion to those who consider the changes which have taken place in this country within the last eight hundred years; but the word constitution is of so vague a nature, that its establishment or overthrow, its perfection or imperfection, depend very much upon the breath of the speaker.

Reflections on the Political State of Society, at the Commencement of the Year 1800. *By John Bowles, Esq.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. *sewed.* Longman *and* Rees. 1800.

The style of this writer is well known to one class of readers; and the admirers of it may derive from this work additional pleasure. Excessive virulence, vague declamation, defiance of impartiality, wretched bombast, are the striking features of this composition. Its object is to preach up war, perpetual war, against the French republic. Buonaparte is treated as the most contemptible of human beings. In short, the great tendency of this philippick is to shock the most violent anti-jacobins; and all who reason justly on the political disputes which now agitate mankind will treat with contempt these strange effusions of an overheated imagination.

The Speech of the Right Honorable Lord Viscount Castlereagh, upon delivering to the House of Commons of Ireland his Excellency the Lord Lieutenant's Message on the Subject of an Incorporating Union with Great Britain, with the Resolutions; containing the Terms on which it is proposed to carry that Measure into Effect. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1800.

We have before us two publications of the speech of lord Castle-

reagh on the introduction of his plan of union: both agree in the main points; but Stockdale's edition is more accurate, and bears evident traces of correction by authority. Nothing in the ſpeech, but the importance of the ſubject, can excite much attention. The introduction is tame, and the reflection on the oppoſers of the bill may be condemned as ridiculous. The members of oppoſition, it ſeems, intereſted themſelves in their different counties to obtain petitions againſt the union; but were the partiſans of the miniſtry entirely quiet? Did they uſe no endeavours to obtain petitions on their ſide of the queſtion? Was it left wholly to its own merits?

On the union of the two crowns ſome judicious obſervations are made: the regulations with reſpect to finance are declared to be much in favour of Ireland: its commercial intereſts are evidently well conſulted; and the union of the two church eſtabliſhments holds out a proſpect of ſecurity to the proteſtant aſcendency. In this part we were happy to ſee it acknowledged that 'an arrangement both for the catholic and diſſenting clergy has been long in the contemplation of his majeſty's government.' A judicious arrangement will have the happieſt tendency in allaying party feuds; and when the three religions are beheld with an equal eye by perſons in power, we may venture to prognoſticate that the greateſt cauſe of civil diſſenſion will be removed. The adjuſtment of the repreſentation and compenſation for the boroughs disfranchiſed cannot be too much commended; we preſume that it is a prelude to a ſimilar arrangement in Great-Britain; and thus the opprobrium on our repreſentation, and the danger to be dreaded from the union, will be done away. We apprehend, however, that the ſpeaker is too ſanguine in imagining that the queſtion of parliamentary reform will, by his meaſures, be laid aſleep for ever. It is a queſtion which muſt be frequently re-examined till the doctrine of repreſentation ſhall be thoroughly underſtood and acknowledged. The general outline for union ſeems to hold out great advantages for both countries; but every Briton muſt wait in ſuſpenſe till he has heard the diſcuſſion in his own legiſlature, as it may eventually lead to the deſtruction or at leaſt the weakening of thoſe privileges by which he has been raiſed to ſo great a ſuperiority over the ſubjects of an equal rank in every country of Europe.

Practical Obſervations on the propoſed Treaty of Union of the Legiſlatures of Great Britain and Ireland; ſhewing, in ſome Particulars, how that Treaty may be rendered acceptable to the People of Ireland, and beneficial to the Britiſh Empire in general. By John Gray, LL. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Becket. 1800.

Theſe obſervations proceed from the pen of an impartial writer, who, from his office as aſſiſtant private ſecretary to the duke of Northumberland in the years 1763 and 1764, had an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the ſtate of Ireland, and, from much ſubſequent reflection, has qualified himſelf to contribute important

information on this subject. The union now depending is, he thinks likely to be highly advantageous to both countries. He would have a title given to the sovereign which should imply that the union is perfect; and, in adjusting this title, the arms, and the motto, to be attached to it, every allusion to France may be erased without trouble. We wish only that the motto may be English. The proposed union he considers only as the re-establishment of the old *nexus*, which had been injudiciously injured by the creation of peers of Ireland, and the alienation of the hereditary revenue. He is strongly desirous of bringing us back to the ancient system of defence, by laying all the taxes on land, and removing entirely the ruinous modes of raising a revenue by customs and excise. Hence the union between the kingdoms might be simplified; and they would easily coalesce. It is also proposed, that, as long as the East-India company shall be allowed to possess its present injurious monopoly, there should be a *depôt* of its wares in Ireland, and that at least two ships from China should disembark their cargoes in that country.

The propriety of introducing at once the whole Irish peerage into our house of lords will not be easily admitted by superficial readers; yet we are convinced that this is the simplest mode of coalition, and will more than any other measure tend to make the union acceptable on the other side of the water. Many other remarks appear to us to deserve the consideration of our legislature; and the minister of finance will do well to attend to the following extracts.

'Let us, in a few words, trace the impolicy of this system, in regard to exports and imports, and see how naturally it tends to separation instead of union. Four or five farmers in one parish may live in an amicable connection, and in a close harmony with each other, each cultivating his own farm, and finding in that cultivation wherewith to pay his rent to his landlord. But four or five shopkeepers in the same street naturally become rivals to each other, each doing his utmost to draw away the customers from the other. What is said of four or five farmers, may be said of ten thousand or twenty thousand landholders: and what is said of four or five shopkeepers, is applicable to ten thousand traders. A selfish spirit of private interest, that is, of separate interest, is essentially connected with these last; and government having once imprudently leagued itself with them, and considered their traffic as a source of income, thought itself bound, and deemed it a politic conduct, to interfere, by commercial regulations and commercial restrictions, in favour of those who were more immediately under its view, though to the prejudice of other subjects, who were equally entitled to its regard.' P. 80.

'That government, in former times, has been supported by a

territorial revenue, with very ſlight aids from cuſtoms, appears from hiſtory; therefore the preſumption is not very great in concluding, that it may again be ſupported by a territorial revenue, with aids from the ſtamp office, and the poſt office, and that one may form to one's ſelf the idea; an idea very agreeable to a chancellor of the exchequer, or to a ſecretary of the treaſury, and, I may ſay, to the kingdom in general, that the defenſive and offenſive ſtrength of the empire may be maintained without a ſingle exciſeman, or a ſingle cuſtom-houſe officer.' P. 88.

Ireland. The Catholic Queſtion conſidered; in a Letter addreſſed to the Editor of the Anti-Jacobin Review and Magazine. 8vo. 1s. Booker. 1800.

This is a temperate and judicious examination of the catholic queſtion, or of the propriety of repealing thoſe laws by which the majority of the natives of Ireland have been deprived of the rights and privileges enjoyed in general by Britiſh ſubjects. We are perſuaded that no danger can ariſe to the ſtate from the total repeal of the laws againſt catholics, and that the admiſſion of the Engliſh catholic peers to their ſeats in the houſe of lords would have a greater tendency to quiet the confuſion in Ireland, than the appearance of many regiments of our militia. It is abſurd at this time to reaſon on the character of the papiſts from the prejudices entertained againſt them in the ſeventeenth century; and the laws in Ireland againſt them are a diſgrace to the ſtatute-book. Many of them are pointed out in this work, which we recommend to every proteſtant, if there ſtill be a proteſtant who retains the old prejudice againſt popery, and who would deny, to ſuch as think differently from himſelf on religious ſubjects, the enjoyment of thoſe civil rights which belong to every member of a well-regulated community.

RELIGION.

A Sermon, preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, on Wedneſday, February 27, 1799. By Shute, Lord Biſhop of Durham. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell *and* Davies. 1799.

Among the chief cauſes of the contempt of religion in a neighbouring country, may be reckoned (according to this prelate) the corruptions of the eſtabliſhed church. Theſe produced, in the rulers of the ſtate, an indifference to all religion; an indifference which gradually ſpread itſelf among all claſſes of the people. From too great intercourſe with the ſuperior claſſes in that country, the higher claſſes of Britiſh proteſtants imbibed ſome portion of the ſame indifference; and the calamities of France have not brought them to a due ſenſe of their ſituation; for, if they were properly affected, ſuch a love of amuſements, and ſo great a frivolity of manners, could not pre-

vail among us. When a perſon is in great diſtreſs of mind, it is not neceſſary to diſſuade him from following pleaſure: he feels no reliſh for it; and, if we were really diſtreſſed by the evident judgements of God now upon the earth, we ſhould ſhow it by a ſeriouſneſs of diſpoſition and real repentance. 'Religion' (the biſhop juſtly obſerves) 'is ſtrictly a perſonal thing, and promotes the welfare of ſtates by its influence upon the hearts and conſciences of individuals.' Hence it is, that 'governments have not found that ſupport in it which they had been taught to expect.' We may add to the truth here advanced, that the rulers of a ſtate have very frequently had little reaſon to expect ſupport from religion, when they either upheld its corruptions, and perſecuted the truth, or, manifeſting in their conduct a great indifference to its precepts, ſet the example of immorality to the people. The concluſion of this ſound diſcourſe we recommend to the ſerious reflections of our readers.

'While our religion dwells only upon our lips, reſides in forms and in profeſſions, although it may be celebrated in it's offices, and honoured in it's rites, it will not, it cannot, in times and dangers like the preſent, afford us the aſſiſtance which we want. But let it become perſonal; let it's faith, it's laws, once ſink into the hearts of thoſe who aſſume it's name, and we will promiſe that our country ſhall ſoon rejoice in it's holy influence, acknowledge it's powerful energy, and find ſtability, where alone it can be found, in the protection of that Almighty Being who ſent it to bleſs and ſave the world.' P. 23.

Apeleutherus; or, an Effort to attain Intellectual Freedom. In three Parts. I. On Public Worſhip. II. On Religious Inſtruction. III. On Chriſtianity as a Supernatural Communication. 8vo. 2s. Boards. Johnſon. 1799.

A work of which the tendency is to prove, that a diſcontinuance of the clerical profeſſion would be no diſadvantage to the world, and that it is immaterial whether the pretenſions of Chriſtianity to ſupernatural authority are true or falſe, will excite ſtrong prejudices in the generality of readers; and it may be ſuſpected by the friends of the writer, that we ſhall not peruſe it with that impartiality which it is our duty on all occaſions to obſerve. That on opening the work we did not agree with our author in his poſitions, all our readers will be ready to believe; that his arguments have not convinced us we may confidently affirm; and yet we can venture to aſſert that we weighed them with as ſtrict an endeavour to obſerve impartiality as the nature of our office requires. The chief error, in the two firſt eſſays, ſeems to be a want of attention to the real ſtate of mankind. Were all men well informed, moral and devout, the neceſſity for public worſhip or religious inſtruction would ceaſe; but, till the arrival of that happy period, theſe

modes of improving mankind cannot ſafely be neglected. That great abuſes prevail in each cannot be denied; and, on this account, the eſſays may be peruſed with profit by thoſe who preſide in our religious aſſemblies: yet inſtitutions are not to be annihilated merely on account of abuſes; and we ſhould reject them only when, under the beſt regulations, they appear to be unprofitable, or when it is evident that the ſtate of ſociety will not admit their continuance.

We do not agree with our author when he ſays that public worſhip is unreaſonable becauſe it occurs at ſtated times, ſo that, according to him, it cannot be productive of religious impreſſions; for the recurrence of the time will, on the principles of aſſociation, bring with it a recurrence of religious impreſſions. Every word alſo in the religious aſſembly may not equally affect every individual in it; but, if the general effect be the excitation of devout affections, this will prove the utility of the inſtitution. The writer ſhould take into his account the effect of abſence from ſuch aſſemblies, that it would naturally produce in many minds a diſregard of religion; and, however highly gifted ſome perſons may be, requiring no aid from external circumſtances, this is not the caſe with the great maſs of the community, for which more particularly theſe inſtitutions are wiſely framed.

The arguments againſt religious inſtruction appear to us more futile than even thoſe againſt public worſhip; and it will ſuffice to mention the ſubſtitutes which are to ſuperſede the neceſſity of religious inſtructors. Theſe are to be found in domeſtic inſtruction, and the art of printing. Both we allow to be good helps; but there are many families whoſe heads are incapable of acting as inſtructors, and the art of reading has not yet made ſuch progreſs among us as to enſure ſufficient advantage from the beſt application of the preſs to the purpoſe of religious inſtruction.

The third eſſay is of a very inſidious nature, and may rob a man of his faith before he is aware of the ſpecious arguments by which he has been deluded. The chief drift of it is to ſhow us that, 'in our ſituation, it is not the miracles which prove the truth of the religion, but it is the truth of the religion that proves the miracles.' In other words, certain facts are to be determined, not by evidence, but by our opinion of doctrines. Now the end of theſe miracles was to prove that Jeſus came from God; and conſequently his doctrines came to us from the higheſt authority: to theſe miracles he appeals; and the great one, his reſurrection from the dead, is the baſis of all our faith. To ſuppoſe that we are to take a retrograde courſe, to bring every opinion to the teſt of our reaſon, and then to determine, from a long inveſtigation of moral truth, that our Saviour aroſe from the dead, is, in our opinion, a very tedious proceſs, highly abſurd, and tending to infidelity. The miracles muſt be determined by the evidence which the ſubject admits; and in this caſe the cir-

cumſtances come down to us better authenticated than all the other events which took place in the ſame period of time, and to which no one from merely hiſtorical evidence denies his aſſent.

On the whole, we do not ſee that the writer has proved any of the points which he has laboured to inculcate; and Chriſtianity has nothing to fear from ſuch an aſſailant, or from ſuch a mode of attack.

A Sermon preached at the Lent Aſſizes, holden at Kingſton, in and for the County of Surrey, before the Hon. Mr. Baron Hotham and Hon. Mr. Baron Perryn, on Monday, March 18, 1799, *and publiſhed at the unanimous Requeſt of the Right Hon. Lord Leſlie, and the other Gentlemen of the Grand Jury. By John Hayter, A. M. &c.* 4to. 1s. Hatchard.

This is an elaborate and pompous diſcourſe. The text is appropriate to the occaſion, containing the prayer of Solomon (1 Kings, iii. 9.) "Give thy ſervant an underſtanding heart, to judge thy people, that I may diſcern between good and bad." Speaking of juſtice, Mr. Hayter remarks, that

'Perfect juſtice is the moſt peculiar and appropriate of all the attributes, which the concluſions of our reaſon, or the devout conviction of our faith, may uſually aſcribe to the Divine Nature; its exerciſe demands the co-exiſting perfections, as well of omnipotence, as of intuition; two perfections which muſt ever be placed beyond the reach of human imitation. Hence by copying, though in imperfect degrees, the attribute of juſtice, man in proportion to each reſpective degree of approximation, reſembles his Creator more ſpecifically, than in the cultivation of any other virtue whatſoever, and, as this attribute in God himſelf ſuppoſes intuition, or complete omniſcience, every advancement in human juſtice is an advancement in human wiſdom, and a ſuperior degree of this virtue is a ſuperior degree of intellectual force.' P. 4.

This obſervation is the reſult of a judicious mind. After a rapid ſurvey of the ancient governments, and an expoſure of the radical defects in the judicial adminiſtration of the laws, the preacher gives a well-timed commendation to the ſuperior excellence of the ſyſtem, and execution of the plan, of Britiſh juriſprudence. He obſerves, that the 'judging the people' by an unbiaſſed 'diſcernment between good and bad,' is the underſtanding heart 'of this conſtitution, which it ſways, upholds, and invigorates.' After complimenting the perſonal character, the profound knowledge, the eloquence and abilities of the profeſſors of the law, he does not fail to point out the *independence* of the judges as a circumſtance which ſecures the equitable adminiſtration of juſtice in this country, in a manner unknown to any other part of the

world, either in ancient or in modern times. The conclusion of the whole is in these words:

'That a constitution thus admirably framed and governed, may be perpetual, cannot form the subject of our petitions to the throne of heaven; because it is still human! Yet it cannot be unreasonable, or too presumptuous, to cherish a hope, that such a system, so consonant with the principles of his first attribute, must be acceptable to God; and that it may continue to enjoy his favour, and be sustained by his power, till at the consummation of all things, and the universal and final retribution of human actions, we shall comprehend, while we adore, the perfect justice of God; till through the merits and intercession of him, who is both the Saviour and Judge of all mankind, what we have sown in righteousness, we shall reap in glory.' P. 15.

A Letter to the Rev. Joseph Eyre, Vicar of St. Giles's, Reading; occasioned by his Visitation Sermon preached July 30th, 1798. *By a Friend of the late Hon. and Rev. William Bromley Cadogan.* 8*vo.* 6*d.* Griffiths.

Whatever may be the advantages attending the style of preaching commonly called the evangelical, it may be inferred from the following pages, that it has occasioned some injury to the church. The late vicar of St. Giles's, at Reading, filled the churches: he is succeeded by a gentleman who, in the opinion of the hearers of the former vicar, is not sufficiently evangelical. The consequence is, that many of the parishioners left the church, 'not the church of England, much less the church of Christ,' according to the writer of this pamphlet; for they retain the use 'of her excellent liturgy and ordinances.' 'With whom (it is asked) does the charge of schism lie?' We answer—and we give the answer for the sake of the hearers of the evangelical preachers in general—with the seceders. 'If they are driven from their own fold, in their own parish church, by novel opinions or false doctrines, what must they do?' This is a harsh insinuation; but the answer is obvious. The church has provided a remedy in such a case. It would doubtless be proper to speak with the preacher in private: if he should not listen to the admonition, the appeal is then to be made to the bishop; but surely it is not warrantable to secede from the church of England merely from a change made by death in the ministry, without taking the steps which might perhaps have removed the difficulties of the discontented. On the difference of religious opinion between the last and the present vicar, which is very strongly urged in this pamphlet, it is not our business to determine; but, however perfect the writer may be in the faith, he ought to be reminded that there is something greater than faith in the estimation of an apostle—Charity.

Observations on the Signs and Duties of the present Times; with some Account of a Society of Clergymen in London, who have agreed to preach in Rotation weekly Lectures in each other's Churches and Chapels, on this important Subject: and a Summary of their Views, and Endeavours to excite a Spirit of Prayer, and of Exertion to promote Vital Godliness at this alarming Period. Drawn up by the Desire of the Society, and published with their Approbation, by Thomas Scott, Chaplain to the Lock Hospital. 12mo. 6d. Mathews. 1799.

Several clergymen, impressed with a due sense of the aweful times in which we live, have agreed to use all the means in their power for exciting the people committed to their charge to reflect upon the just judgements of God now on the earth, and, by supplication and repentance, to avert from a guilty land the calamities in which neighbouring nations are involved. Their motives are good; and, if they act agreeably to the sketch here given of their intentions, they may promote the revival of a spirit of piety and vital religion, of which the decay among us must affect every serious mind with alarming apprehensions. The only danger is that these clerical meetings may be turned to political purposes, and that the spirit of party may interfere with the duties of Christianity. We hope that every one engaged in this undertaking will be on his guard against such a perversion of religion; that, as it is the general determination expressed in this work not 'to launch out in invectives against our enemies,' each will strictly observe so excellent a rule, and be fervent in his prayers 'to God to send to the inhabitants of France the blessings of peace, good government, rational liberty, and the gospel of salvation.'

A Letter to the Rev. Robert Hawker, D. D. Vicar of the Parish of Charles, Plymouth; occasioned by his late Expedition into Cornwall. By the Rev. R. Polwhele. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Chapple. 1799.

A second Letter to the Rev. Dr. Hawker: by the Rev. R. Polwhele. 12mo. 6d. Chapple. 1799.

If the insinuations in these letters be true, Dr. Hawker may be considered as an evangelical clergyman, who, believing firmly in the doctrines of the church of England, thinks it incumbent on him to impress them on the minds of others with greater earnestness than is usually employed by the clergy. Hence he is charged with embracing the gross errors of methodism; and many accusations against the leaders and disciples of that sect (we should hope that they are unfounded) are adduced with a view of bringing into contempt the doctor's principles. The charge of preaching in the churches of other clergymen, and at hours which the writer chooses to deem unseasonable and uncanonical, seems to us of little weight; and, when we find him referring to Paley's account of subscription

to the thirty-nine articles, we are confident that the two antagonists can never be brought to a reconciliation. Whatever may be the errors of the evangelical clergy, we shall never cease to reprobate the vague opinions introduced by Paley and others on the grounds of subscribing to the articles; and, as long as those opinions prevail, it is evident that the clergy will be divided, one party censuring the other as believing too much or too little of the articles. If Dr. Hawker really preached out of his parish, we do not conceive that this writer has taken the proper method of reproving him. He has not proved that the conduct of Dr. Hawker was schismatical, since he always preached in churches, and observed the forms established by the church; and the insinuations that his antagonist is a crowd-catcher, a Calvinist, a canter, a fond enthusiast, an uncharitable fanatic, are highly reprehensible.

A Country Parson's Address to his Flock, to caution them against being misled by the Wolf in Sheep's Cloathing, or receiving Jacobin Teachers of Sedition, who intrude themselves under the Specious Pretense of instructing Youth and preaching Christianity. By Francis Wollaston. 8vo. 1s. Wilkie. 1799.

It appears that a society opened a Sunday-school in the parish of which this gentleman is the spiritual super-intendant, for teaching children to read and write, to reverence God, and obey their parents; and in a hand-bill it was intimated to the parish that the school would be opened on a certain day, on which also two sermons were to be preached in the same place. This hand-bill filled our author with indignation. He never intrudes into the parish of any other clergyman; nor can he conceive what right any persons have to teach his parishioners. Besides, he says, there can be no need of any preachers or teachers in his parish, since he keeps a curate resident in it, and 'pays for the daily instruction of all whom the parish are willing to send for instruction.' This leads him into the usual outcry against jacobins, French philosophers, &c. The changes are rung upon Weishaupt, Voltaire, free-masons, illuminati, London corresponding society, friends of the people, Scotch convention, reform of parliament, &c. A pious wish is expressed, that 'we shall never shake hands with France till she returns to a sense and acknowledgement of her dependence upon God.' Another wish is, that our ministers may never condescend to treat with the French in their own language; and for the benefit of our own country the author expresses his wish, that the law would give to the minister of a parish 'the power of proceeding in a summary way against such as intrude unasked into the fold committed to his care.' The perusal of this work will be sufficient to prevent the legislature from adopting the last regulation.

MEDICINE, &c.

A Treatise on the Venereal Rose. By William Butter, M. D. 8vo. 3s. Cadell *and* Davies. 1799.

Our medical readers may not recollect their old acquaintance, perhaps their torment, under this new term. It is in reality the gonorrhœa; and the appellation is derived from its being an erysipelatous inflammation. The description is clear and accurate; but many such have been published. The only novelty is the curative plan. This is the usual cooling course, with the addition of hemlock pills. As with these we have had no experience, it does not become us to decide. We are, however, unwilling to trust, without farther evidence, the testimony of a man of warm predilections; and we do not perceive, from Dr. Butter's narrative, that cases of gonorrhœa, in this way, are sooner or more effectually cured than on the old plan. Indeed, in general, the cooling course seems to have cured the patient, before the exhibition of the hemlock, which appears to have been chiefly useful, when the effects of the disease have reached the prostate gland, and those parts of the urethra which are in its neighbourhood.

The Arguments in Favour of an Inflammatory Diathesis in Hydrophobia considered; with some Reflexions on the Nature and Treatment of this Disease. By Richard Pearson, M. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Seeley.

The opinion of Boerhaave, lately revived by Dr. Ferriar, that hydrophobia is an inflammatory disease, is ably discussed by Dr. Pearson. He examines the facts mentioned by the different authors who have treated of rabies, or incidentally noticed the disease, and finds reason to conclude that its nature is by no means phlogistic. He is therefore disposed to recommend wine, aromatics, and the most active stimulants. They should, however, be such as principally act on a distant part, since the stomach and throat are, in many instances, much inflamed. We could wish oil to be more generally tried, as it can be conveyed into the system in so many ways, without the smallest inconvenience. Four ounces of olive oil, for instance, with two or three grains of opium, may be thrown into the rectum every two or three hours.

An Essay to instruct Women how to protect themselves in a State of Pregnancy, from the Disorders incident to that Period, or how to cure them. Also, some Observations on the Treatment of Children, which, if attended to, may ward off dangerous Diseases, and prevent future Evils. By Mrs. Wright, Midwife. 8vo. 1s. Barker.

Mrs. Wright professes that she has published in order that she may be known, and insinuates that she is acquainted with some medicines of peculiar efficacy. The essay itself, if we except a few common rules of managing women during pregnancy, and some remarks of a still slighter texture on new-born children,

is a desultory disquisition on the qualifications of a midwife, and the preference which ought to be given to the female practitioner, except in extraordinary cases, which are asserted to be very rare. The only precept to which we positively object relates to washing children in luke-warm water. After the two or three first days the water should be always cold.

A General View of the Nature and Objects of Chemistry, and of its Application to Arts and Manufactures. By William Henry. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1799.

This appears to be an introductory lecture to a course of chemistry; and the author has properly substituted a 'view of the nature and objects of chemistry' for a history of the art, the usual subject of an introduction. Little novelty can be expected; but, in the distinction between natural philosophy and chemistry, an accuracy of discrimination, highly creditable to the clearness of the author's views, is observable.

AGRICULTURE, &c.

Lord Somerville's Address to the Board of Agriculture, on the Subject of Sheep and Wool, on the 14th of May, 1799. No Publisher's Name.

An Answer to Lord Somerville's Address to the Board of Agriculture, on the Subject of Sheep and Wool, of the 14th of May, 1799. *Or to such Part of it as relates to the Substitution of English for Spanish Wools, in the Manufacture of Superfine Cloths.* 4to. 1s. Cadell *and* Davies. 1799.

Reply to a Treatise called an Answer to the President's Address to the Board of Agriculture, on the Subject of Sheep and Wool, &c. 4to. 1s. Nicoll. 1799.

This controversy, which has now assumed some magnitude and importance, arose from lord Somerville's declaration of his intention of wearing cloth made of British wool only, and from his speaking with some indignation of monopolies, and the various arts, which he supposed had augmented the price of Spanish wool beyond a reasonable value. In his Address, he points out the causes of the superior qualities of Spanish wool, and properly observes, that, with similar management, the English wool might be rendered equally valuable. What relates to broad-cloths, manufactured from British wool only, has excited the indignation of the answerer, who appears to be a clothier of Glocestershire; and he comments, with great severity, on the president's address. The augmentation of the price of Spanish wool, he contends, is not occasioned by any arts of monopoly, but by the war with Spain. He deprecates the interference of the legislature, at which lord Somerville hinted, and affirms that no cloths can be made from Eng-

lifh and Spanifh wool mixed; that to manufacture good cloth from Englifh wool only is impoffible, and that we not only hazard the fuperior eftimation of our manufacture in foreign markets, but raife the price of our own wool fo high, as to crufh fome of thofe manufactures which employ the coarfeft wool.

Before we proceed to the Reply, we will make fome obfervations on the ftate of the queftion. It is a fact, that cloths are made of a very good quality from Englifh wool only. They are indeed inferior to thofe which are made from Spanifh wool; but the better kinds of the former, and the inferior forts of the latter, are fcarcely diftinguifhable, if the preference be not given to the Englifh. The fpecimen of Englifh cloth, annexed to the Reply, is a peculiarly fine one: we have feen none equal to it; but of various fpecimens, taken promifcuoufly, now under our eye, there is not one that is unworthy of high commendation. The wear of the Englifh cloth is, we think, equal to that of the Spanifh (by thefe terms we of courfe fpeak of the wool only) both in beauty and durability.

The author of the Anfwer is difpleafed that the prefident has applied to Yorkfhire, and not to Glocefterfhire. In reality, in Yorkfhire, and in a part of Somerfetfhire, the Englifh wool has been chiefly employed in the manufacture of broad-cloths. As this attempt has been refifted in Glocefterfhire, it was natural that lord Somerville fhould chiefly apply to Yorkfhire.

As thefe are facts, and we fpeak from perfonal knowledge, the political queftion only remains. The anfwerer contends, that the importation of raw materials gives employment to the manufacturer, and that to difcourage or impede the importation of Spanifh wool would be a national injury. It may be obferved, however, that if one market only is open for a particular commodity, and this can be fupplied by our own wools, inferior forts may probably be more eafily procured in other places, and the exclufion from a fingle port will not be very injurious. The attempt is therefore proper and patriotic.

The Reply is full and fatisfactory, but it is not written always with elegance or with temper. The author fhows, that, both in Yorkfhire and Somerfetfhire, Englifh wool, *only*, is employed in making excellent broad-cloths. The importation of Spanifh wool fhould, in his opinion, be continued, and it would be properly employed in the manufacture of the lighter cloths, intended for the Turkey trade, which we are now about to recover. The various inclofures, as they will increafe the breed of fheep, and meliorate their fleeces, will, he thinks, be adequate to the increafed confumption of Britifh wool, and contribute, by the fuperior finenefs, to render it a more perfect fubftitute for the Spanifh. The laft argument is inferior in folidity to the others, and we would rather recommend looking to America or India, if neceffary, for a fupply to increafed confumption. Thefe countries may offer a finer or a

coarſer fleece, which may be employed according to its nature. It is enough to ſhow, that our own broad-cloths may be manufactured with our own wool, which no argument has yet diſproved. When a ſupply of Spaniſh wool can be again procured, and when the *neceſſity* of uſing our own ſhall ceaſe, the queſtion of *expediency* will recur.

A Practical Treatiſe on draining Bogs and Swampy Grounds, illuſtrated by Figures; with curſory Remarks upon the Originality of Mr. Elkington's Mode of Draining. As alſo, Diſquiſitions concerning the different Breeds of Sheep, and other domeſtic Animals; being the principal Additions that have been made to the fourth Edition of Eſſays relating to Agriculture and Rural Affairs; publiſhed ſeparately, for the Accommodation of the Purchaſers of the former Editions of this Work. By James Anderſon, LL. D. F. R. SS. &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robinſons.

In giving an account of the third volume of doctor Anderſon's Eſſays on Agriculture, we had occaſion to take notice of the author's claims reſpecting a mode of draining *, for the *diſcovery* of which Mr. Elkington had received a præmium from the Board of Agriculture. The preſent treatiſe contains a more full and circumſtantial detail of the grounds on which the doctor founded thoſe claims, the circumſtances that led to the attempt, and of the manner in which the draining was accompliſhed.

The chief circumſtances and principles of draining are ſtated and unfolded; and the author afterwards conſiders the improvement of lands by draining and other methods. He thinks that the general ſucceſs of draining depends upon accurately diſtinguiſhing the peculiar circumſtances of the ground. He offers ſome advice on the principles of draining; a proper knowledge of which he conceives to be the moſt readily acquired in mountainous diſtricts. The ſubject of digging wells is in ſome degree connected with the preſent inquiry, and has conſequently attracted the notice of our author.

On rendering lands dry, by means of ditches carried acroſs declivities from the higheſt parts of the wet ground, there are ſeveral judicious remarks which tend to diſcriminate the different caſes. It is ſaid that 'wherever the water that is to be carried off can be made to find acceſs into the ditch only by means of *tapping*, then the opening of a ditch in this ſituation may be declared nugatory; and that whenever a ditch in that ſituation can prove radically uſeful in draining the lower grounds, then tapping can prove of little or no ſervice.'

Many caſes are deſcribed in which different modes of draining muſt be practiſed; but they cannot be well underſtood without the plates. The doctor concludes his remarks by obſerving that there

* See our XXIſt Vol. New Arr. p. 23.

is not a single principle illustrated in the present work, which was not clearly explained in his Essays more than twenty years ago, except that of draining thin clays.

The Scotch Forcing Gardener: together with Instructions on the Management of the Green-House, Hot-Walls, &c. illustrated with five Copper-Plates; containing ten different Designs of Hot-Houses, Hot-Walls, &c. on the newest and most improved Constructions. With an Appendix; containing Hints on the making of Fruit-Tree Borders; planting and training Fruit-Trees against Walls, Espaliers, &c. Also, Hints on the Depth and Nature of Garden Land; Manures, and their Application; Culture and Rotation of Crops, &c. By Walter Nicol, late Gardener at Wemyss Castle. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Scatcherd.

The claims of the Scotch forcing gardener are, as he tells us, founded on long experience, and a correct observation of what has occurred in 'the different branches of forcing, making of fruit-tree borders, planting, and training of wall-trees,' &c.

Having had for eight years 'the direction (he says) of rearing and bringing to maturity a new garden and hot-houses, and that too amongst the first in the kingdom; and my labours having been attended with general success; I flatter myself, that what is contained in the following sheets will be found useful to some, and instructive to many of my readers: the more especially, as they will find nothing advanced therein which has not come within the compass of my own practice and observation.' P. V.

After this we do not by any means wish to dispute Mr. Nicol's abilities as a gardener; but we suspect that a garden, in the state here described, is not the best adapted for such experiments as he appears to have made.

In raising asparagus, pits with *flues*, it is said, are to be preferred to frames, because in this way the plants are of a much better colour and higher flavour than on dung hot-beds.

'It also frequently occurs (says he) in large families, and where much company is kept, that the gardener is put to a nonplus, by not being timeously advised that such articles are wanted. The conveniency of a pit will be found to be a great relief in this respect; as it is much easier (by aid of the flues) to forward or protract the growth of the plants here, than in a common hot-bed: on the one hand, if the plants are advancing too rapidly, you are under the necessity of cooling the bed in a certain degree; and, on the other, if they are not advancing so fast as you could wish, you are under the necessity of applying linings, which is attended with much trouble and loss of time.

'A pit twenty-five or thirty feet long, and six wide, and which one fire can perfectly command, is sufficient to force asparagus to serve a large family from November to May in a constant and regular succession; after which it may be advantageously employed

in raising a late crop of melons or cucumbers, or in striking young pine-apple plants, &c.' P. 2.

Mr. Nicol, however, afterwards shows us that he is not acquainted with the *old* practice of a dung hot-bed.

Having laid down the various directions that are necessary, he informs us, that he 'can truly, though *frivolously*, assert, that he has frequently produced a *whole crop* of asparagus without *either earth or water!*'

'This, however (he adds), is not always the case, nor is it desirable; as, if a little water is not required, the dung must be in too moist a state, and consequently too much noxious vapour must have attended the whole process. It will be advisable, however, to be sparing in the use of that element; as, at this season of the year, and in this country, we have but too much cause to lament the absence of that luminary which is the very essence of vegetation.' P. 6.

Of cucumbers he treats at considerable length; and here, as well as in the growth of melons, he is a strenuous advocate for pits with *flues*: indeed in this his *new* practice seems chiefly to consist.

In detailing the management of the grape-house, peach-house, pinery, and green-house, he has occasionally suggested modes of practice that may be useful; and we think that his work, upon the whole, may be consulted by young gardeners with advantage.

A Treatise on the Culture of the Apple and Pear, and on the Manufacture of Cider and Perry. By T. A. Knight, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Longman *and* Rees.

In this ingenious little treatise Mr. Knight endeavours to apply to the art of raising plants those principles which have been adopted in the breeding of animals. He contends that the effects of cultivation on animals and vegetables are similar; that the changes produced in them originate from similar causes; and that, when they are unaltered by culture, a great resemblance to the parent prevails in the offspring, while the cultivated kinds of each considerably vary. Therefore, he says,

'By taking advantage of incidental variations, and by propagating from those individuals which approach nearest to our ideas of perfection, improved varieties of fruit, as well as of animals, are obtained. Much attention has in the present day been paid to the improvement of the latter, whilst the former have been almost entirely neglected: probably from an opinion that these, being natives of warmer climates, of necessity degenerate in this. This opinion is however unfounded; a more favourable climate would no doubt be advantageous to every plant and animal; but the stall and meadow counterbalance the defects of our climate in the improvement of the one, and it is probable that the south wall and highly manured border will have the same good effects in the other, and that the changes produced in each will be in proportion to the skill and industry of the cultivator.' P. 4.

On these principles he conceives that the apple may be cultivated to greater advantage than it has hitherto been. With regard to the effects of different sorts of soil on this fruit, his observations are these.

'My own experience induces me . . . . to believe, that with proper varieties of fruit, the defects of almost every soil and aspect might be corrected, and that fine ciders might be made in almost every part of England. Every variety of the apple is more or less affected by the nature of the soil it grows in; and the excellence of the ciders formerly made from the redstreak and golden pippin, and at present from the stire, in light soils, seems to evince that some fruits receive benefit from those qualities in the soil, by which others are injured. On some soils the fruit attains a large size, and is very productive of juice; on others it is more dry and highly flavoured. Where the juice is abundant, but weak, which sometimes happens in the deep loam of the vallies, dry rich fruits, which are eminent for producing strong ciders, should alone be chosen: and when the aspect is unfavourable, or the situation cold and exposed, it seems sufficiently evident, that all fruits, which do not attain an early maturity, should be excluded. On some gravelly soils I have observed the fruit on the same tree to ripen very irregularly, and the cider to be (probably in part from this cause) harsh and rough: these defects would, I have no doubt, be removed by planting such fruits only as become ripe rather early in the season, and which are at the same time capable of being long kept to attain a perfect and regular maturity without decaying.' P. 26.

Some curious remarks are offered on the modes of propagating and planting these fruit-trees, and on other operations connected with the subject; but, for these, we must refer the reader to the work itself, which, we may add, is interesting and useful.

The Art of floating Land, as is practised in the County of Gloucester, shown to be preferable to any other Method in Use in this Country; with a particular Examination of what Mr. Boswell, Mr. Davis, Mr. Marshall, and others, have written on the Subject. Minute and plain Directions are afterwards given for the Formation of a floated Meadow, with three descriptive Plates. By T. Wright. 8vo. 3s. Scatcherd. 1799.

Mr. Wright gives an account of the various methods of floating land, employed by different agriculturists, and endeavours to support that which is practised in Gloucestershire. We are not fully of his opinion; but his arguments are so strong as to merit attention.

EDUCATION.

An English Key to Xenophon's Memorabilia of Socrates, &c. 8vo. 5s. *Boards.* Mathews.

The custom of teaching the Greek language by a Latin medium

has long prevailed in our ſchools. But, as this practice is ſuppoſed by many to render the acquiſition of the Greek more difficult, the preſent writer has made an attempt to ſuperſede the uſe of Latin in the ſtudy of the former language. His propoſal is, at leaſt, deſerving of attention, though it may not be deemed worthy of general adoption.

The *Engliſh Key*, upon the whole, well *unlocks* the difficulties of the work ſelected for illuſtration: but it may perhaps be thought, that a Latin key would have been equally uſeful, as boys do not begin the ſtudy of Greek before they are acquainted with Latin.

Converſations and amuſing Tales. Offered to the Public for the Youth of Great-Britain. 4to. 15s. Boards. Hatchard. 1799.

A quarto volume of converſations for the youth of Great-Britain, with a large margin, and a large type! The amuſing tales have fine Grecian names, and fine Grecian anecdotes, and a fine introduction of Grecian gods. If the youth of Great-Britain get through this work, we give them great credit for their patience. We adviſe the author to make the experiment with a few boys and girls between twelve and fourteen years of age; and from their remarks the real excellence and defects of the work may be eaſily diſcovered.

Philoſophical Queſtions, ſelected for the Uſe of the upper Claſſes in Berkhamſted School; and extracted chiefly from Lectures introductory to the Doctrine of Matter in general. 8vo. 3s. No Publiſher's Name.

The mode of inſtruction adopted by the maſter of Berkhamſted ſchool, deſerves praiſe; and, if the young pupils in the upper claſſes are frequently examined upon theſe queſtions, they cannot fail of imbibing a taſte for uſeful knowledge, and will leave the ſchool for their reſpective departments in life with great advantage. A ſhort work, from which the anſwers to theſe queſtions might be derived, and which would refer to the parts of other works where each queſtion is treated more at length, would be very uſeful. We adviſe ſchoolmaſters in general to form their pupils upon the plan here laid down, and exerciſe them in a ſet of queſtions which will conſtantly bring back to their recollection their former leſſons.

An Abridgment of Mr. Ruddiman's Rudiments and Grammar of the Latin Tongue: with his Engliſh Rules of Conſtruction entire, and the Compiler's Notes and Illuſtrations, &c. To which is prefixed a ſhort Vocabulary, Engliſh and Latin. By George Chapman, LL. D. 12mo. 1s. 3d. Cadell *and* Davies. 1799.

This abridgement is, in ſome reſpects, an improvement, and may ſerve as an uſeful introduction to more extenſive grammars.

The Sparrow. 18mo. 2s. Newbery.

The Sparrow, like the Guinea, the Bank-note, and other ſpeech-

less agents in the cause of humanity, relates its adventures in this pleasing book, which is intended to correct the too frequent propensity in children for tormenting animals that are within their power. The author, in a sensible preface, endeavours to exculpate the young from the charge of cruelty, attributing their harsh usage of birds, &c. to a spirit of activity incident to early years; and the present effort, we hope, will be successful in directing it to other means of gratification.

Some Hints to young Women, engaged in rearing Infants, or educating Children, either in Private Families, or Schools. 12*mo.* 2*s.* *Boards.* Newbery. 1799.

As these hints are compiled from different works, their merit must of course be unequal: but, in general, the choice of the source is good, and the precepts are salutary. The catalogue of books for youth merits a different character: the works are not well chosen, nor properly adapted to the different periods: the religious ones are, in many respects, exceptionable.

POETRY.

Poems. By Edward Atkyns Bray. 8*vo.* 5*s.* *Boards.* Rivingtons. 1799.

This volume chiefly consists of ballads, tales, and sonnets. The ballads and tales are deficient in interest. The sonnets will afford a more favourable specimen of the writer's talents.

'To Maria, on returning her Glove.

'In days of chivalry, each gallant knight,
Sought arm'd the joust;—no unknown champion fear'd,
And threw his glove, the challenge to the fight:
And if, to grasp it from the ground, appear'd
A jealous rival on his foaming steed,
With feats of arms their mistress' love they court,
Whose smiles they value as their highest meed,
For e'en her presence grac'd the savage sport.
No more those scenes of blood delight the fair,
Tho' still a youth of manly heart they prize,
Who justly proud their flow'ry chains to wear,
Ne'er at the first repulse despairing flies.
Deign then, Maria! to accept this glove,
This peaceful challenge to thy envy'd love!' P. 159.

'See! how the leaves, when Autumn rules the year,
Exchange the verdant for the yellow hue:
Soon will they fall, and as the plain they strew,
Proclaim that Winter, clad in storms, is near.
Thus the fond maid, who drops the secret tear,

To find her perjur'd lover is untrue,
Grows wan with grief; and left her fate to rue,
From her ſmooth cheeks the roſes diſappear.
Her fading beauties, to meek Pity's eye,
Who loves to cheer the family of Pain,
Tell but too true that ruthleſs Death is nigh,
Prepar'd to ſnatch her to his ſhadowy reign.
Stretch'd o'er her tomb may her deceiver lie,
Confeſs his crime, and beat his breaſt in vain!' P. 184.

The ode to Sublimity exhibits a curious allegorical genealogy. Sublimity was begotten by Immenſity upon Eternity; and, to ſhow the ſize of Immenſity, the author calls him a giant.

Affectation; or, the Cloſe of the Eighteenth Century: a Satire, in Dialogue. By Gratiano Park. Part the Firſt. 4to. 1s. Lee. 1799.

The firſt part is not ſufficiently good to excite in us any wiſh for a ſecond. The following lines are the beſt in the poem.

' NICIAS.

' Lo! Brinſley, of the ſtage forgetful long,
Now turns imperial Kotzebue to ſong!
With lacker, leather, trumpet, muſket, gun,
Altar and phoſphor, lion and full ſun;
Lumb'ring he loads the dull inertive maſs,
Nor brightens into gold the ſterling *braſs*:
Incongruous ſcenes, ſhow, ſong, and ſtorm proceed,
Men roar, and women rant, and chieftains bleed:
A baſe deſerter from his country's ſide,
Reforms man's rudeneſs, and is Nature's pride;
A hero, whom his monarch's ſafety arms,
Yet guided only by a woman's charms,
Pines, droops, ſurrenders, if his miſtreſs ſcold;
Tho' brave, defenceleſs; and, tho' raging, cold;
A harlot, fierce, intolerant, and vain,
Pours from her ſtormy breaſt, mild Virtue's ſtrain;
You'd ſwear, her truths ſo moral ſo divine,
'Tis David's ſon, or elſe ſome concubine,
Has ſtol'n his proverbs, and gives line for line.

' HORTENSIUS.

' Yet Honour's offspring all. The angry wh—e,
Who lifts the dagger where ſhe lov'd before;
The recreant, who forſwears his kindred race,
And fights to bring his country to diſgrace;
The chief, who yields his valour, ſtation, life,
Becauſe he muſt obey another's wife;
All,—all are bright examples, rare, and high,
And wond'rous as the bard's new loyalty!

Justly for these, shall Jordan quench her fire,
From humour's blaze, and Nature's grace retire;
And, wont to bid exalted sorrows flow,
Siddons and Kemble grace a puppet-show;
While hurrying prompters shift the rapid scene,
And music kindly fills each gap between,
To give with lustre to a wond'ring age,
This epicene production of the stage:
What! yet no int'rest! yet no falling tear!
Go, cries the wit, add quick a fun'ral bier,
And tell our Roscius, e'er he go to bed,
He must display how well he acts the dead.' P. 13.

The Last Dying Words of the Eighteenth Century, a Pindaric Ode. Giving a humorous and chronological Detail of all the remarkable Events, Fashions, Characters, &c. in that Period. By Andrew Merry, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6*d*. Lee. 1800.

This is a ludicrous Carmen Seculare, as bad in its kind as the serious one of the poet laureat.

DRAMA.

The Tournament, a Tragedy; imitated from the celebrated German Drama, entitled Agnes Bernauer, which was written by a Nobleman of high Rank, and founded on a Fact that occurred in Bavaria about the Year 1435. *By Mariana Starke.* 8vo. 2s. Phillips. 1800.

We can award no praise to this tragedy. The dialogue is feeble, and the imitator has weakened the effect of the catastrophe by saving the life of Agnes. Few dramatists know how to employ the prerogative of mercy.

Pizarro; a Tragedy, in five Acts: differing widely from all other Pizarros in respect of Characters, Sentiments, Language, Incidents, and Catastrophe. By a North Briton. 8vo. 2s. 6*d*. Roach.

Pizarro in love with Cora; Valverde, a virtuous character; Alonzo killed, and his wife left to Rolla! These are the alterations in this play, which gives the lie as boldly to all historical truth and metaphysical possibility, as the pantomime of Mr. Sheridan.

Pizarro; ein Trauerspiel, in fünf Aufzügen; aufgeführt auf dem Königlichen Theater, in Drury-Lane; nach dem Teutschen Drama des Herrn von Kotzebue: der Tod von Rolla; oder die Spanier in Peru. Für die Englische Schaubühne verfasset und eingerichtet, von Richard Brinsley Sheridan. Ins Teutsche übersezet, von Constantin Geisweiler. 8vo. 2s. Geisweiler.

The Germans have now an opportunity of making a tolerable comparison between their own and our theatres; but the celebrated

ſpeech which inſpired ſo much loyalty on our ſtage will produce no great effect on the phlegmatic German. The tranſlation is in general ſpirited, and not inferior to the tranſlations of the ſame play from the German into the Engliſh language.

La-Peyrouſe, a Drama, in two Acts. By Auguſtus Von Kotzebue. Tranſlated from the German by Anne Plumptre. 8vo. 1s. Phillips. 1799.

This drama we have noticed in another tranſlation *.

NOVELS, &c.

The Witch, and the Maid of Honour. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Longman *and* Rees. 1799.

A ſtrange title is followed by a preface equally ſtrange. 'Pray, Sir, in all the *reading* which you have ever *read*, did you ever read ſuch a book as Locke's Eſſay upon the Human Underſtanding?' The eſſay is afterwards deſcribed as a '*hiſtory book* of what paſſes in a man's own mind;' and it is added, 'if you will ſay ſo much of the book, and no more, believe me, you will cut no contemptible figure in a metaphyſical circle.' Three cauſes are then aſſigned for 'obſcurity and confuſion in the mind of man;' and the author, after this curious introduction, begins a tale which does not exhibit any great knowledge of the human mind. It relates to the times of queen Elizabeth and king James I.; and the manners of thoſe times are, in many inſtances, well preſerved; but the novel is not very intereſting.

The Abbeſs, a Romance. By W. H. Ireland, the avowed Author of the Shakſpeare Papers, &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. 14s. Boards. Earle *and* Hemet. 1799.

By the avowed author of the Shakſpeare Papers! We believe it —for we recogniſe in the following paſſage the taſte of the author of Vortigern.

'As the firſt gray tint of morning roſe above the horizon, ſhe experienced a ſenſation of mingled pleaſure and melancholy. She ſaluted with a ſmile this forerunner of day. Now, the faint roſy tinge appears, which gradually increaſes, till the azure vault is laced with crimſon ſtreaks. Theſe recede before the ſaffron carpet, that widely ſpreads itſelf throughout the Eaſt. A ray of gold next rears its glittering point. Swiftly, it riſes, diffuſing a bright gleam of light. The reſplendent ſun now ſhows his front magnificent; the fiery globe immenſe rolls through the wide expanſe, before whoſe radiance the dew that hangs at heaven's wide portal, melts, diffuſing ſweets ambroſial.

'Such was the glorious ſcene that wholly occupied Maddalena's

* See page 233 of the preſent volume.

attention. What ideas of Omniſcient Greatneſs did they not inſpire! "Ah!" thought ſhe, "if the Almightly ſuffers weak man to view ſuch ſights as theſe, what muſt the virtuous ſpirits enjoy under his immediate protection? they muſt reſide in yon azure heaven, where golden groves, gently agitated by the perfumed air, ſtrew pearls tranſparent on the aërial path they tread. They muſt bathe in cryſtal ſtreams more ſweet than dew upon the boſom of the bluſhing roſe—tranſlucent ſtreams, whoſe channels glitter with the diamond's blaze. They muſt repoſe on beds delicate as their celeſtial forms, on new-plucked leaves of lily and carnation, whoſe varied tints accord with their complexion." P. 40.

The romance, however, contains little of this high poliſh. It is neither better nor worſe than ſuch as are regularly produced at the Leadenhall-ſtreet manufactory.

Saint Julien. From the German of Auguſtin La Fontaine. With additional Notes, hiſtorical and explanatory. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. ſewed. Lane. 1799.

When a former tranſlation of this work appeared, we gave our opinion of the original *. We ſhall therefore only now obſerve, that the preſent tranſlation is ſpirited, and in general faithful.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

An Index, drawn up about the Year 1629, of many Records of Charters, granted by the different Sovereigns of Scotland between the Years 1309 and 1413, moſt of which Records have been long miſſing. With an Introduction, giving a State, founded on authentic Documents ſtill preſerved, of the Ancient Records of Scotland, which were in that Kingdom in the Year 1292. To which are ſubjoined, Indexes of the Perſons and Places mentioned in thoſe Charters, alphabetically arranged. Publiſhed at the Deſire of the Right Honourable Lord Frederick Campbell, Lord Clerk-Regiſter of Scotland. With a View to lead to a Diſcovery of thoſe Records which are miſſing. By William Robertſon, Eſq. 4to. 10s. 6d. Boards. Nicol.

The aſſumed arbitration of Edward I. of England, with regard to the crown of Scotland, is a memorable fact in the hiſtory of the two countries; but the charge againſt that monarch of having deſtroyed the Scotiſh records, though ſeriouſly affirmed by ſome hiſtorians, has, upon later inveſtigation, been doubted with great probability, and denied with much confidence. The deciſion of this point will conſiderably depend on the effect of the publication before us, the origin and purpoſe of which are thus detailed in the preface.

* See our XXVIth Vol. New Arr. p. 236.

'The object of this publication, is to recover some ancient records of Scotland known to be missing; and the basis of it is an index, compiled about the year 1629, and a very ancient quarto manuscript on vellum, lately discovered.

'These materials came to the knowledge of the editor by the following means.

'The lord clerk-register for Scotland, lord Frederick Campbell, some years ago, in attending to the duties of his office, observed the perishing condition of the parliamentary records of Scotland, and formed the design of getting them printed for the public benefit, as the journals of both houses and the parliamentary rolls had been done in England.

'Preparatory for this work, the editor transcribed, with his own hand, as much of the earliest and most decayed part of these parliamentary records as would make up two folio volumes; and was directed by the lord register, as soon as the business of his office would permit, to make an accurate research in the tower of London, and in the chapter-house at Westminster, to ascertain whether these ancient repositories contained any materials, from which the defects in the parliamentary records of Scotland might be supplied, it being well known, that king Edward I. had carried to England all the records prior to the reign of king Robert I.

'In the mean time, Mr. Astle, one of the trustees of the British museum, whose knowledge in historical antiquity is not less known than his anxious endeavours to make it useful to the public, informed the lord register, that he had discovered some curious manuscripts in the British museum respecting Scotland, and in particular the index now printed.

'He likewise informed the lord register of a still more important discovery, which he had made as keeper of his majesty's state-paper office, which was a quarto manuscript on vellum, written in a character of great antiquity, and which, besides transcripts of many deeds relative to Scotch affairs, contained minutes of several parliaments of Scotland antecedent to the earliest parliaments mentioned in the printed statute-book.

'In consequence of this very important information, the lord register directed copies to be immediately made, both of the index in the museum, and the quarto manuscript in the state-paper office, pressing the editor to repair to London as soon as he conveniently could, for the purpose of more effectually carrying on the intended research in all the above-mentioned repositories.' P. iii.

The editor proceeds to recount his researches in pursuance of this direction of the lord register, appears highly satisfied with the materials collected for discovery, and concludes his preface with the following remark.

'These united circumstances afford reasonable grounds to hope, that the records above mentioned, referred to in the index, which

for many years past have disappeared, may yet be discovered, and restored to the public records of the country.' P. vii.

We heartily wish that the important object of this publication may be fully attained; and we willingly give our testimony to the learning and diligence which the editor has manifested on the occasion.

Appeal to the Men of Great Britain in Behalf of Women. 8vo. 5s. *Boards.* Johnson.

Here we find a woman arguing for the rights of her sex with female volubility and (we may add) female ingenuity. We accede to her reasonings, but advise her in the promised second part to strengthen them by compression, and pay more attention to her language. Let her be heard in her own cause.

'To man then, to him alone who of all created beings challenges equality, nay more, who challenges superiority over the injured party, is this little work seriously recommended. If it were equal to the fervent wishes of the author to render it worthy of whom it is addressed, and of the public in general, oh how perfect! how interesting would it be! But as it is, with all its imperfections on its head, if the writer indulges no romantic hopes, neither does she suffer any abject fears. "Dans les pays de servitude, le bien des hommes est méprisé et le citoyen qui les aime y gemit et se taît. Mais dans le séjour de la liberté, on est sûr de l'estime publique si l'on travaille à leur bonheur. On vous sait gré du désir et de la tentative, même infructueuse; et c'est là que l'étranger lui même doit verser ses lumieres."—In Britain then, in the favorite abode of liberty, shall a daughter of the 'sea-girt isle' tremble to appear before the tribunal of her brethren?

No! with a cause in hand so interesting to every individual, I come forward on the contrary with confidence, and to you fathers, brothers, husbands, sons, and lovers, I submit the following pages. By all those tender ties may you be led to consider of what importance it is to society, to improve the understandings, the talents, and the hearts of those, who must one way or other, ill or well, act such principal parts on the stage of life. The consequences of this attention to their improvement, however good, however happy for them, are I apprehend equally interesting for you, which I flatter myself that I shall be able to prove; if, not alarmed or disgusted by the pretensions already hinted at, you will deign to peruse the following attempt to restore female character to its dignity and independence; though I trust, neither at the expence of the peace, the happiness, or the self-importance of MAN.' P. ii.

'Know, however, that I come not in the garb of an Amazon, to dispute the field right or wrong; but rather in the humble attire of a petitioner, willing to submit the cause, to him who is both

judge and party. Not as a fury flinging the torch of discord and revenge amongst the daughters of Eve; but as a friend and companion bearing a little taper to lead them to the paths of truth, of virtue, and of liberty. Or if it lead not to these, may it be utterly extinguished. "If the arguments here advanced appear chimerical, unfounded, or irrational; let it perish, let it be obliterated, let no memorial of it remain." P. v.

The Existence of God in Three Persons philosophically proved, with the Manner by which they influence each other, and also Mankind, submitted to the Consideration of Jews, Christians, Deists, &c. selected in plain Language from the original Manuscript of a Work entitled The Investigator, by the Author, E. Dunn. 12mo. 3d. Bennison. 1799.

The Diurnal and Annual Motions of the World philosophically accounted for; with the Causes of the Variation of Time, &c. necessary for the Perusal of Astronomers, Students in Geography, and Travellers. Written in plain Language. Selected from the original Manuscripts of a Work entitled The Investigator, by the Author, E. Dunn. 12mo. 4d. Bennison. 1799.

Our readers may estimate the author's theology and philosophy from the following extract, which concludes his account of the Trinity.

'Those who are experienced, will comprehend this explanation of the three persons of God; but those who cannot, may assist their knowledge by setting fire to the wicks of a large and a small candle, and place them in erect positions at several yards distance from each other, in a darkened apartment; then suppose the biggest flame to represent the Father, and that of the lesser to represent the Son, and the light flowing from around both intermingling together, and extending to the surrounding wall, to represent the Spirit that extends from around their persons to an immense distance in the encompassing space.' P. 12.

An Essay on the Preservation of Shipwrecked Mariners, in Answer to the Prize-Questions proposed by the Royal Humane Society: "1. What are the best Means of preserving Mariners from Shipwreck?—2. Of keeping the Vessel afloat?—3. Of giving Assistance to the Crew, when Boats dare not venture out to their Aid?" By A. Fothergill, M.D. F.R.S. &c. 8v. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1799.

The directors of the humane society have already characterised this essay as 'a very able and scientific performance, happily enlisting philosophy in the cause of humanity;' and we do not protest against the decision. The various methods proposed, for preserving mariners from shipwreck, keeping the vessel afloat, and giving assistance to the crew, when boats cannot venture to their aid, combine the different proposals already offered with the suggestions of the ingenious author.

ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

IN compliance with the requeſt of a learned correſpondent, we beg leave to explain a paſſage (Vol. XXVI. p. 377) concerning the epoch of the Venetian traveller Cadamoſto. A note on the ſubject, being faſtened with a wafer in the copy, chanced to fall aſide.

It is certain that in the old editions, two of which we have ſeen, the dates 1504 and 1505 are inſerted in the voyage: and it is equally certain that ſeveral paſſages in the body of the work aſſign it to 1444 (not 1454, as ſome infer). A long diſſertation might be employed in diſcuſſing whether the dates 1504, 1505, are put to impoſe it on the firſt purchaſers as a recent voyage; or whether, on the contrary, Venetian vanity interpolated the other paſſages, in order to aſſign important diſcoveries of prince Henry of Portugal to a native of Venice. If we peruſe the voyage of Zeno, A. D. 1380, we ſhall ſee the fallacy with which the Venetians recounted their voyages of diſcovery. But paſſing this topic, the ſimilar arts of the Phœnicians, the envy of the Venetians at the Portugueſe diſcoveries, &c. we muſt recollect that Cadamoſto mentions another date, 1493: and Voſſius (De Hiſt. Lat.), Fabricius (Bibl. Med. Ævi), &c. accordingly aſſign him to the year 1500.

Even if we grant that Cadamoſto performed his voyage to Africa *fifty-ſix* years before (as may be inferred from many paſſages, real or interpolated), ſtill it cannot be accepted as a record of 1444, but of 1500, as the beſt critics agree; for, as the work was only compoſed about the latter period, it is evident that the memory of a very old man muſt have interwoven ſome more recent diſcoveries with the more ancient. Such being the caſe, it becomes fruitleſs to inquire whether the dates 1504, 1505, be erroneous; or the paſſages, which indicate 1444, be interpolations.

As, in our review of the Miſſionary Voyage to the Southern Pacific Ocean (ſee p. 1 of this volume) we expreſſed our ſorrow for the *failure* of a plan ſo benevolent, a ‘ director of the Society’ has informed us that eight of the miſſionaries remain at Otaheitè ‘ with every proſpect of ſucceſs, and in full poſſeſſion of the natives’ reſpect.’ This information, added to the intelligence of the approaching departure of a veſſel which will carry out a ‘ conſiderable reinforcement of miſſionaries,’ will give pleaſure to all the true friends of Chriſtianity.—In anſwer to a remark of the director, intimating that ‘ no man ought to brand that as *gloomy* which tends in the higheſt manner to the preſent and eternal happineſs of our fellow-creatures,’ we beg leave to obſerve, that the ſcheme of converſion would have a better chance of ſucceſs, and the happineſs to which our correſpondent alludes would be equally promoted, if doctrines more attractively rational than thoſe of Calviniſm ſhould be preached to the pagans of Otaheitè or Tongataboo.